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## WILLIAM SCOTT GRAY

1885-1960

WILLIAM SCOTT GRAY died on September 8, 1960. The cause of his death was sheer accident—a fall from a horse; the consequence is stark tragedy. Dr. Gray had labored to improve the teaching of reading for a longer period of time (more than a half century), with greater singleness of purpose and in a wider variety of enterprises than anyone else in history. His contributions are enormous both in number and in importance. Although he was seventy-five years old at the time of his death, he enjoyed the health and vigor that promised many more years of undiminished productivity. He was still carrying on many important services for the profession, some of them, such as his annual reviews of the literature of reading research, singlehandedly. His unexpected death is a tragic loss to the profession.

Dr. Gray's distinguished career was initiated early and sustained to his last day by a unique devotion and diligence. A calm man, rarely excited or disturbed, he was nevertheless inspired by an apostolic zeal for promoting his ideals. He was a quiet but determined crusader. He waged a lifelong campaign to improve education with unrelenting effort.

Possessed of some of those characteristics which have caused many persons of his eminence to become self-centered and uncooperative, Dr. Gray became outstanding in precisely the opposite way, in cooperative activities. As an editor of a yearbook, as a chairman of a professional committee, as a promoter of a journal (such as *The Reading Teacher*), as a leader of a professional society (such as the International Reading Association) or as a member of a small discussion group, he was unexcelled. Indeed among his most important contributions are the many cooperative enterprises which he fostered. It will be impossible to replace him completely in these vital projects.

Dr. Gray had a rare capacity for deep and enduring friendliness. He and I first met in a professional gathering when I had just begun to study the teaching of reading. As rather brash beginners are likely to be, I was somewhat critical. We had quite a lively discussion, but Dr. Gray's reaction was not annoyance, but friendly interest. We soon got together for a good-natured private discussion—the first of innumerable similar meetings. Many a time we have chuckled over silly rumors about one or both of us. For more than forty years Will Gray has been one of my best friends. I and his host of friends will sorely miss him personally as well as professionally. We cannot repay Dr. Gray our debt of gratitude, but we can honor him. We can honor him best by emulating his devotion to his personal and professional ideals.—ARTHUR I. GATES

## A Magnificent Ambition

**T**HIS IS the age of speed. The four minute mile has been achieved and become almost commonplace. Parachute jumpers have learned the "free falling" principle and have attained almost unbelievable records. Jets have broken the sound barrier and travel at two and three times the speed of sound. Echo I circles the earth every two hours. Constantly we are told that greater and greater speeds are in the offing. As a result we have learned not to be astonished by what men can do. When history labels this age as it did the stone age, the dark ages, the iron age, there is considerable likelihood that the twentieth century will be known as the Speed Age.

Are we ready now for a breakthrough in Reading? Are we ready to accept the idea that reading speeds of five to eight to ten thousand words per minute can be attained along with good comprehension? Are we ready now to free the reader from the shackles of inner speech? It seems that we are.

As Mrs. Wood states in an article in this issue many of us have known that Theodore Roosevelt was an exceptionally fast reader. Others have known that John Stuart Mill bemoaned the fact that turning pages interfered with his rate of reading. Most of us have known a person or two who read at unusual rates. And all of us have known that these people were exceptional. Are you ready to believe that there are many among us, far more than we have

thought, who can be taught to read (and comprehend) at phenomenal rates?

For almost a year now Mrs. Wood has been conducting courses in speed reading in the Washington, D. C. and Wilmington, Delaware areas. Certain of her students have been achieving almost unbelievable results. Because of the many success stories the Editor and his wife enrolled in one of her courses during the past summer. This editorial thus reflects firsthand experience and has been prepared to alert you to a possible breakthrough in reading that may parallel advances in other areas and may result in many changes.

Briefly, these are things observed that merit reporting. First, the seeing pattern of the reader is changed. Instead of moving across a line from left to right he is taught to move down a page. Second, a considerable part of the course is devoted to sound, well-known practices of how to read a book. Third, to break the inner speech barrier which limits a person's reading rate to his speaking rate requires constant, diligent practice. Half-hearted attempts yield no results. Fourth, each subject must be able to "read" before he is enrolled. This is not a program to replace the learning to read instruction offered in elementary schools or to replace remedial reading instruction. Fifth, it is not a course in oral reading. Sixth, students who learned to read by the word memoriter, word by

(Continued on Page 92)



# Instructional Problems in Reading as Viewed by Teachers and Administrators

by RESEARCH COMMITTEE  
● WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY  
CHAPTER, IRA  
KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN

NINE YEARS ago a group of interested students of reading formed the Western Michigan University Chapter of the International Reading Association. Their purposes then, as now, were to encourage the study of reading problems at all educational levels, to stimulate and promote research in developmental, corrective, and remedial reading, to study the various factors that influence progress in reading, to assist in the development of more adequate teacher-training programs, to disseminate knowledge helpful in the solution of problems related to reading, and to sponsor conferences and meetings planned to implement the purposes of the association. The group, which has grown larger and more effective with each passing year, has completed its first cooperative study. The purpose of this paper is two-fold: to report findings resulting from the study, and to stimulate other chapters to sponsor investigations in the field of reading.\*

## Procedure

Members of the Western Michigan University Chapter prepared two

\*The Research Committee was composed of the following members of the chapter: Dorothy J. McGinnis, *Chairman*, Fran Baden, Homer L. J. Carter, Lillian Mulvaney, Ruth Penty, Alice Perejda, and Helen Wise.

inventories, one for classroom teachers and one for school administrators in the same school systems. The inventories asked the respondents to (1) list problems encountered in the teaching of reading and (2) record the kinds of in-service training programs provided by their schools. The investigators realized that inventories which required participants to state responses in their own words would make tabulation of data difficult, but felt that this method would increase validity of responses. In addition, information was obtained regarding the background, experience, and training of the 549 elementary teachers and 54 school administrators to whom the inventories were administered. Responses to each question were then classified according to content, and a general tabulation was prepared. After these data had been treated statistically and studied by the different members making up the research team, inferences based upon them were set forth.

## Information About Participants

The 54 school administrators participating in this study received their academic preparation at ten different colleges and universities. Thirteen per cent had a bachelor's degree, 79.6 per cent a master's degree, 3.7 per cent the doctorate, and 3.7 per

cent had not met the requirements for any degree. Approximately 60 per cent of the administrators had earned a degree between 1950 and 1959. Some, however, completed the requirements for their last degree as early as 1925. The average year in which the last degree was earned was found to be 1948. Of the 54 school administrators, 64.8 per cent indicated that as undergraduates they had prepared for elementary teaching, whereas 31.5 per cent said their training was in the secondary field, and 3.7 per cent reported that their undergraduate preparation was not in the area of education. The school administrators reported an average of thirteen years of teaching experience in the elementary grades, with some having as many as thirty-nine years of experience, and some no experience. The number of years spent in administration ranged from one to thirty-nine with the average nine years. Eighty-three and three-tenths per cent reported that their responsibilities included planned classroom observation, and 75.9 per cent stated that their duties included planned supervision. The average number of classroom teachers supervised by administrators was 22, although the number ranged from five to 375. Approximately 65 per cent supervised fewer than 20 teachers.

There were 549 elementary teachers participating in this study. They received their academic preparation in 56 different colleges and universities. The requirements for a degree had not been met by 6.4 per cent; 66.5 per cent had a bachelor's de-

gree; 22.2 per cent held a master's degree; and 4.9 per cent failed to indicate their degree status. The average year in which the last degree was earned was 1949 and the earliest was 1910. Sixty-one per cent of the participants had met the requirements for a permanent teaching certificate, and 32.4 per cent held some form of provisional certificate. The others (6.6 per cent) failed to indicate the type of teaching qualifications they had met. The average number of years taught in the elementary grades was thirteen, although the number of years ranged from one to forty-four. Nearly half the teachers had taught less than ten years. Approximately 57 per cent of the elementary teachers participating in this study had some teaching experience at the secondary level. The range was from one year to twenty-four, with three years the average. Nine and six-tenths per cent of the participants were teaching in the kindergarten; 51.6 per cent in grades one, two, and three; and 38.8 per cent in the upper elementary grades.

### Summary of Data

A study of Table 1 sets forth some interesting facts. The table shows the different problems mentioned by administrators and teachers and the frequencies of the responses in percentage terms. For example, under teacher preparation and adequacy in reading instruction, 42 per cent of the responses of administrators suggested that this problem was directly related to the teaching of reading while less than 2 per cent of the

**TABLE 1**  
**PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE TEACHING OF READING**  
**LISTED BY ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS**

Problems	Administrators (Per cent)	Teachers (Per cent)
Teacher Preparation and Adequacy in Reading Instruction	42.3	1.7*
Teacher Turnover .....	1.0	—
Providing for Individual Differences (through grouping and provisions for children with reading problems and the gifted) .....	18.5	12.0
Time (lack of supervisory and teaching time) .....	13.4	11.1
Materials (inadequate workbooks, readers, teacher's guide-books, library facilities, and audio-visual materials) .....	9.3	14.4
Class Size .....	4.2	1.3
Parental Attitudes .....	2.1	2.9
Commonly Accepted Philosophy of Education .....	2.0	—
Development of Basic Skills .....	—	36.7*
Reading Readiness (primarily initial stages of reading instruction) .....	—	1.4
Causal Factors .....	—	10.5*
Identification and Evaluation of Reading Needs .....	1.0	.6
Record Keeping .....	—	.3
Attendance and Mobility of Students .....	1.0	.6
No Reading Problems Indicated .....	5.2	6.5
Total .....	100.0	100.0

\*Difference significant at the 1 per cent level.

responses of the teachers regarded teacher preparation and adequacy of instruction as a significant problem. On the other hand, approximately 37 per cent of the responses of teachers indicated that the major problem related to the teaching of reading was that of the development of basic reading skills. Some of the more common skills, listed in the order of their frequency, were phonetic analysis, adequate comprehension, and vocabulary development. A great range of basic skills is indicated by the fact that 21 skills were listed by the teachers participating in the study. It is apparent that none of the administrators listed the development

of basic skills as one of the major problems related to the teaching of reading. Data in this table show that the teachers were aware of causal factors affecting reading performance and that no administrator regarded these as major problems. Those causal factors frequently mentioned can be classified as being of a physical, mental, and emotional nature.

Approximately 19 per cent of the responses of administrators and 12 per cent of the responses of teachers dealt with the problem of caring for individual differences. In going back to the original sources for more detailed information on this subject, it

becomes apparent that both administrators and teachers were aware of the wide range of abilities and interests in the classroom. More of the responses of administrators than of the teachers, however, dealt with procedures for grouping children in order to care for individual differences. In the interpretation of these data the differences between the responses of the administrators and the responses of the teachers were not statistically significant.

Thirteen per cent of the responses of administrators and 11 per cent of the responses of the teachers indicated that lack of time is a problem in the classroom. Nine per cent of the responses of administrators and 14 per cent of the responses of teachers mentioned materials as a problem. An analysis of the original data reveals that administrators and teachers are concerned with inadequate library and audio-visual mate-

rials, and that in addition teachers are disturbed by a lack of materials of interest to children, inadequate readers, workbooks, and teachers' guidebooks. It should again be observed that the responses of administrators and teachers show no statistically significant differences. Such factors as reading readiness, class size, parental attitudes, attendance, identification of reading needs, means of keeping records, and a commonly accepted philosophy of education were not disturbing to any significant degree.

Table 2 shows the differences in the opinions of administrators and teachers regarding in-service training programs. The 54 school administrators participating in this survey listed a total of 127 in-service programs in reading in their school systems. These 127 instructional activities were classified into ten areas. A study of Table 2 shows the

TABLE 2  
KINDS OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMS  
LISTED BY ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS

Problems	Administrators (Per cent)	Teachers (Per cent)
Extension Courses.....	1.6	1.0
Professional Library Facilities and Instructional Materials...	17.4	4.9*
Administrators' Letters and Service Bulletins.....	.8	—
Research Projects .....	1.6	2.4
Faculty Meetings.....	22.8	15.4
Special Meetings and Institutes.....	10.2	16.4
Conferences with Reading Consultants.....	11.7	12.6
Reading Clinics and Demonstrations.....	19.0	5.5*
Reading Committees and Workshops (building, system and county) .....	7.9	14.2
No In-Service Program or No Mention of One.....	7.0	27.6*
Total .....	100.0	100.0

\*Difference significant at the 1 per cent level.

per cent of responses for each classification. The in-service training programs mentioned most often by administrators were faculty meetings.

The 793 in-service programs in reading recorded by the 594 teachers cooperating in this investigation were classified into nine areas. Over 27 per cent of the teachers, however, noted no in-service training program. Apparently none of the teachers considered the administrator's letters and service bulletins to be a part of in-service training in reading. There are three classifications which show differences between the responses of administrators and teachers significant at the 1 per cent level. These areas are (1) professional library facilities and instructional materials, (2) reading clinics and demonstrations, and (3) no in-service program or no mention of one.

### Inferences

1. Both administrators and teachers are concerned with adequacy of instruction. Administrators and teachers, however, perceive this problem from different points of view. Administrators appear to relate the problem to inadequate teacher preparation and ineffective instructional practices. Teachers, on the other hand, relate the problem to children and to the development of basic reading skills.

2. Although twenty-one skills were mentioned by teachers, their major concern with phonics may indicate that teachers have need to be informed of more functional methods of teaching phonics for use with

those students who learn best through auditory methods. The frequent mention of phonics may also indicate that teachers are increasingly aware of public pressures and are confused about the place of phonics in the total reading program.

3. In view of the fact that 10.5 per cent of the teachers' responses voiced concern with causal factors, it may be inferred that many of them relate their instructional problems to some factors which are beyond their ability to control. This may suggest that teachers and administrators should consider causal factors primarily in terms of prevention of reading difficulties, and that their major efforts should be directed to the successful operation of a thorough-going developmental program in reading. In turn, it seems to suggest that teachers should better qualify themselves to teach those aspects of a remedial reading program which can be handled within a class organization if their situation demands this type of teaching. Some authorities in the field may suggest the need for psychological assistance in the diagnosis and treatment of children's problems.

4. The thoughtful observer of the data presented in Table 1 will wonder why both administrators and teachers were so little concerned with teacher turnover, parental attitudes, a commonly accepted philosophy of education, record keeping, attendance, and, perhaps most important of all, the identification and evaluation of reading needs.

5. Means of providing for indi-



vidual differences is the second most frequently listed problem by administrators and the third most frequently stated problem by teachers. Consequently, it may be inferred that teachers and administrators recognize this as an area in which they need assistance, and the responses may suggest the necessity for scientific experimentation regarding the various methods of dealing with individual differences.

6. A lack of time is the third most frequently mentioned problem by administrators and fourth as listed by teachers. It may be inferred, then, that pressures exist which detract from efficient and effective reading instruction. Pressures may stem from an overcrowded curriculum, lack of time for planning and preparation, or from ineffective use of time available. The whole problem of time pressures should receive careful consideration by all concerned.

7. It is obvious that very few teachers and no administrators gave consideration to reading readiness as a problem related to the teaching of reading. This may indicate that mental, emotional, and social readiness for reading at all grade levels might well receive emphasis in both pre-service and in-service training of teachers.

8. It is evident that many of the in-service programs made available by administrators were not recognized by teachers as contributing to their training in the teaching of reading. These data may suggest that attempts should be made to have teachers become more aware of the

basic purposes underlying these programs, and it may be advisable for administrators to consider the judgment of their teachers in the planning and evaluation of in-service programs.

9. It may be possible that the in-service training programs listed by teachers and administrators are those which are best remembered because they are most effective. If this inference is true, one may ask why 27.6 per cent of the responses of teachers indicated no in-service program or at least no mention of one.

10. The classroom teacher apparently evaluates highly those in-service programs which bring her into direct contact with others through faculty meetings, special meetings and institutes, and conferences with reading consultants. This may explain why more teachers did not mention clinics, demonstrations and library facilities, in which participation through teacher discussion is not common, as in-service functions.

11. Only 4.9 per cent of the responses of teachers listed professional library facilities and instructional materials as in-service training, but 9.3 per cent of the administrators and 14.4 per cent of the teachers responses mentioned materials as a problem related to the teaching of reading. Therefore, is it not reasonable to assume that there is a need for more professional and elementary libraries which are easily accessible to administrators, teachers, and children?

(Continued on Page 114)



## What Do Children Say Their Reading Interests Are?

by BERNICE J. WOLFSON

• UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN,  
MILWAUKEE

TEACHERS ARE frequently surprised by the variety of interests expressed by boys and girls in any single classroom. The study described here examined the expressed reading interests of approximately two thousand boys and girls in grades three through six in Norwalk, Connecticut.\*

A Reading Interest Inventory consisting of one hundred twenty questions was administered orally. Seventy-three per cent of the children returned questionnaires in which parents had provided information about their family background. These questionnaire responses provided information about parents' education, occupation, and number of books in the home.

### Boys and Girls — Different Interests?

Boys' choices, as a group, were significantly different from girls' choices, except in the category of Social Studies. The twelve categories examined were: Adventure, Animals, Fine and Applied Arts, Fantasy, Family Life and Children, Famous People, Machines and Applied Science, Personal Problems, Physical Science, Plants, Social Studies, and

Sports. For further details of the inventory see Reference 6.

The table shows a considerable overlapping of interests between boys and girls in many categories. Both groups showed a comparatively high interest in Social Studies and Fantasy, and a comparatively low interest in Plants. However, more contrast

PREFERENCES  
OF BOYS AND GIRLS

Category	Mean percentage of Yes responses	
	Boys (1,000)	Girls (942)
Adventure	77.3	63.3
Animals	67.4	60.2
Fine and Applied Arts	36.1	61.7
Fantasy	68.3	76.1
Family Life and Children	44.0	62.0
Famous People	65.7	50.9
Machines and Applied Science	70.9	35.4
Personal Problems	61.1	72.9
Physical Science	72.3	57.0
Plants	45.4	54.4
Social Studies	70.0	69.4
Sports	75.4	65.7

between boys' and girls' choices is apparent in the categories about Machines and Applied Science, Fine and Applied Arts, and Family Life and Children. It is clear that no category appealed exclusively to either boys or girls.

More boys expressed interest in more categories than did girls. Exam-

\*The writer is indebted to the teachers of the Norwalk Public Schools who volunteered their assistance, to the parents and children who participated, and to Dr. Harry A. Becker, Superintendent of Schools.

ination of responses to each of the 120 questions showed that 21 questions were responded to favorably by 80 per cent or more of the boys. Only ten questions were equally popular with the girls.

The boys' 21 items represented eight different interest categories. The girls' popular ten items represented five different interest categories.

There were only nine questions to which fewer than 35 per cent of the boys answered "Yes" and eight questions so answered by the girls.

### Choices at Different Grades

As a general rule fewer children in grades five and six said Yes to the items of the inventory than did children in grades three and four. The pattern of interest did not change from grade to grade.

### Home Factors, Achievement, Intelligence

In terms of the measures used in this study, there was no statistically significant difference between the way children answered the Reading Interest Inventory and the various home factors considered.

In addition, the results of this study did not provide a sufficient basis for concluding that there is any relationship between the answers to the Reading Interest Inventory and the factors of reading achievement and intelligence test scores.

### Suggestions for Parents and Teachers

This study, like previous studies

(1, 2, 3, 4, 7), indicated the wide range and variety of children's interests and emphasized again the need to provide materials to capitalize on these interests.

Teachers and parents might ask themselves if they are continuing to encourage inquiring minds and the pursuit of interests as children reach fifth and sixth grade.<sup>1</sup>

The existence of considerable interest in the social studies area suggests that we might increase our efforts to provide suitable reading materials and information in this area.

In individual cases we might ask: Has this child developed many interests in the world about him? Can we provide for his needs in these areas? Can we make him aware of possible interests in other areas?

We still need additional research to help us understand WHY interests develop and HOW we can be successful in expanding interests (5, 8). However, we can now make greater efforts at home and at school to satisfy the varied interests that already exist by providing ample opportunity for children to explore widely in varied areas.

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2. Jersild, Arthur, and Tasch, Ruth. *Children's Interests*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. Pp. xii + 173.
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## Self-Selection with Intermediate Children

by LOIS SMITH AND JANE BECHER  
● APPLETON, WISCONSIN,  
PUBLIC SCHOOLS

**H**OW CAN I, as a teacher, instill in my children a desire to read? How can I bring together the children and the wealth of fine reading materials that are available? What kind of a program can I plan which will create in children a desire to improve their own ability to read? How can I provide for the wide range of individual differences in an interesting and profitable way? What is the most effective way to incorporate the teaching of the various skills into the total reading program?

Every teacher is faced with these questions and is constantly seeking answers from other teachers and from professional reading. One possible answer is similar to the solution doctors and mothers have found in infant feeding — let the child select his own. But would this really work in the field of reading? Would an individualized program based on self-selection accomplish the above objectives?

With the encouragement offered by the success of other teachers as reported in current professional magazines, one teacher in Appleton decided to explore the possibilities with her group of intermediate children. With the help of the school librarian and the reading teacher a plan of operation was organized. The plan was put into effect in January, 1957, and continued with the same

teacher and children until May, 1958.

### Preparation

In order to plan wisely for materials and procedures it was necessary to know the abilities and interests of each child in the group. Thus, standardized reading tests were administered, as well as interest inventories. Teacher-pupil planning sessions prepared an outline of skills essential to good reading ability. Keeping these skills in mind, results of the tests and interest inventories were discussed with each child in order to help him evaluate his strengths and weaknesses and point out the areas in which he needed improvement.

Realizing the need for a variety and quantity of materials to provide for the varied capacities and interests of the children, possible sources were explored, including classroom, school, home, and public libraries.

It was necessary for the teacher to make careful plans for budgeting class time to allow for wide reading, individual conferences, and the sharing of reading experiences. She planned methods of keeping records, evaluating children's progress and giving instruction in skills when needed.

It was also necessary that parents understand the plan, since it differed from the program with which they

were familiar. Their cooperation was necessary if the wide reading which it was hoped would result at school, was to be extended to leisure time. A letter asking for this cooperation went to each home.

### The Program in Action

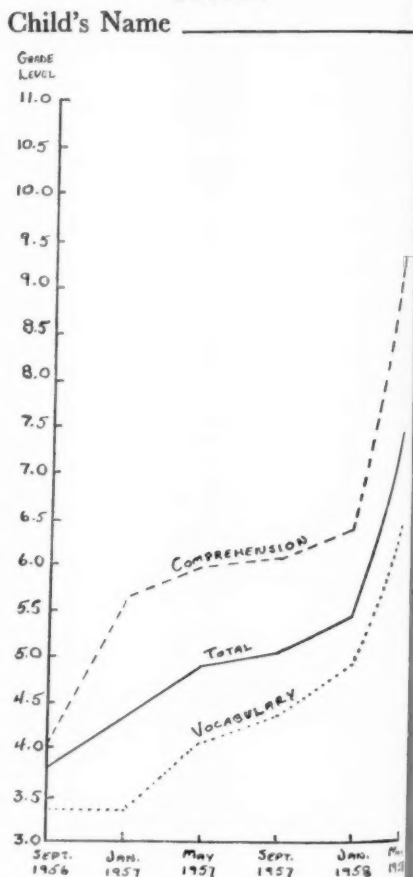
With the groundwork completed, the program got under way. Keeping the varied interests and abilities in mind, a group of books was chosen from the public library to supplement those already on hand. At two-week intervals, these books were exchanged or renewed. As time went on, the children played a bigger part in choosing books, sometimes going as a class, and sometimes sending a representative group to the library with a list of preferences.

With sufficient books to choose from, each child made his own selection and began to read. As the reading progressed the teacher was ready to give help when needed. Individual conferences gave the teacher and children opportunity to discuss the current book and read favorite portions. Through this conference it was possible to discover areas in which the pupil needed additional instruction. This instruction was given individually, or in groups if several children had the same difficulty. Another outcome was an improved teacher-pupil relationship and a more complete understanding of the child and his needs. This enabled the teacher to guide the child's reading in such a way as to broaden his interests and challenge him to further endeavor.

The teacher kept an accurate

account of each child's progress, including his abilities, changing interests, areas of strengths and weaknesses, number and kinds of books read, and his reading growth. This growth, measured by standardized tests, was charted on an individual profile as shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1  
INDIVIDUAL READING ACHIEVEMENT  
PROFILE



The children kept their own records of books read — titles, authors and personal reactions. They also

listed new and interesting vocabulary which they encountered.

While a desire to read is often dampened by requiring book reports, the experience of sharing a good book with friends *may* add incentive to further reading. These children welcomed the opportunities provided for sharing, and showed originality in planning a variety of activities designed to interest their classmates in some of the books they had enjoyed.

Various types of dramatization were given, such as puppet plays, pantomimes, skits, and shadow plays. Some children preferred to present factual material by means of science experiments, bulletin board displays, collections, hobbies, and demonstrations of projects resulting from their reading. Children with an artistic bent frequently depicted characters, stories and episodes from favorite books through illustrations such as murals, shadow boxes, peep shows, maps and book jackets. Written reviews, character sketches, biographies, riddles, poems, and book teasers were welcome contributions to the classroom and school paper and their own reading table.

A real incentive to exploration in various fields was provided by quiz programs based on characters and incidents from favorite books. These were presented in true television style. Frequently, a group of children who had read the same book engaged in a lively discussion concerning its merits. The informal give-and-take of these sessions encouraged spontaneous contributions from the less

vocal members of the class. These varied activities afforded opportunities for all children to participate, and provided the group interaction which might be neglected in a completely individualized program.

In order to further acquaint the children with the wealth of new books being published and to enhance their desire to read, a book exhibit was held in November. All members of the school were invited to participate, and the joy they displayed while browsing among the hundreds of beautiful books was contagious. Parents, persuaded by their children to attend, responded with enthusiasm and many plans were laid for family reading.

### Evaluation

As in any educational program which departs from generally accepted procedures, the participants were eager to know what "results" were obtained. So, as the year and a half drew to a close, it was decided to use the following four means of evaluation: (1) standardized tests, (2) teacher's observations, (3) children's reactions to the program, and (4) parents' appraisal.

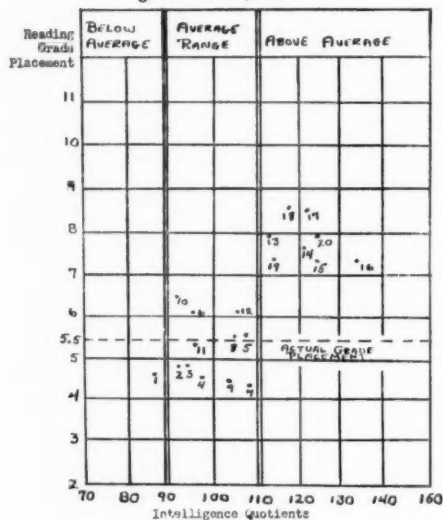
The results of standardized tests (California Test of Mental Maturity and California Achievement Test) for this group of children were compared with those for the same age group in the entire city. The median IQ was 105, while the median IQ for the children of this age group in the city as a whole was 108. The median reading achievement score for both the self-selection group and the city



was 8.3. (Actual grade placement, 6.8). It will be noted that this was not an exceptionally bright group of children. However, at the end of the year and a half of reading under the "self-selection" plan, the reading scores of the self-selection class equaled those of the other classes in the city, while the growth of the self-selection class in reading skills from September to April (21 mo.) exceeded that for the city as a whole (15 mo.) by six months.

In addition to records of progress which had been kept on individual achievement profiles throughout the period, it seemed advisable to analyze the achievement of all members of the group in relation to their capacities for learning. This correlation is shown in Figures 2 and 3.

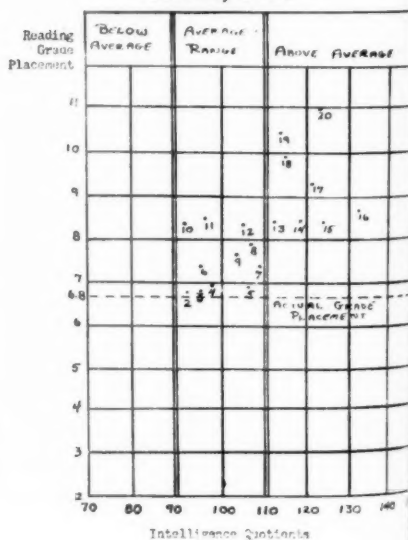
FIGURE 2  
CORRELATION OF INTELLIGENCE  
QUOTIENTS AND  
ACHIEVEMENT IN READING  
JANUARY, 1957



Though there were twenty-nine children in the group at the outset of the program and approximately the same number at its close, twenty were members of the group for the entire period, and only these twenty are shown on the diagrams. It seems significant that, while at the beginning of the program seven children showed achievement scores below their actual grade placement, at the close only one child was below grade level, but at the approximate level to be expected with his intellectual ability. The different patterns of distribution in the two diagrams would appear to indicate that some children had been hampered by group instruction and thrived under a more individualized plan of teaching.

But no teacher will judge the suc-

FIGURE 3  
CORRELATION OF INTELLIGENCE  
QUOTIENTS AND  
ACHIEVEMENT IN READING  
APRIL, 1958





cess of a teaching technique by tests alone. Just as intelligence is only one of many factors influencing a child's school progress, so too is the score on a standardized achievement test only one measure of his success (or failure) in meeting desired goals. What other indications of satisfactory growth were apparent?

Perhaps the enthusiastic attitude of the children toward reading was the most outstanding evidence that the teacher's goals were being realized. As the program progressed, books seemed to be among the children's most prized possessions, and it was not uncommon to have a "waiting list" for a certain book, which had been shared with so much enthusiasm that all wanted to read it. Though the number of books read is a rather uncertain criterion of growth in reading ability, it is interesting to note that the number read per child varied from twenty-five to two hundred during the period from September to April. It is obvious that one of the twenty-five may have exceeded in number of pages and in complexity of skills required three or four of those on the list of two hundred. The teacher observed that as time went on the nature of books being read changed. Interests were increased and broadened and more biography, science, history, and animal stories replaced the simple story-type. Intense interest in a book frequently challenged a child to attempt material which stretched his skills to the utmost.

Growth in library skills kept pace with increased reading interests.

With the help of the school librarian a knowledge of authors, illustrators, and publishers, as well as acquaintance with the card catalog and other library facilities, grew steadily. Reference skills were acquired which carried over into other subject areas. Truly, children had made acquaintance with a wide variety of reading materials and had become aware of the riches within their reach. Is it beside the point to suggest that the teacher also increased her knowledge of the best in books for children?

What were the children's reactions to this method of reading instruction? An attempt was made through the use of an unsigned questionnaire to get an unbiased and free expression of feelings. The children's responses are tabulated on the following sample questionnaire.

### Student's Evaluation of a Self-Selection Program

COLUMBUS SCHOOL

May 6, 1958

This questionnaire is to help us evaluate the reading program we have been using in our class.

1. I prefer:

- A. Self-Selection (Each one chooses the book he reads and reads at his own rate, keeps a record of books read and reports in various ways to class) 24
- B. Basic Book Reading (Each one reads in a book chosen by the teacher for group work, reading a given assignment each day and checking his reading in a given way) 2

2. I have gained in the following skills:

- |                         |        |      |
|-------------------------|--------|------|
| A. Word recognition     | Yes 24 | No 2 |
| B. Word meaning         | Yes 25 | No 1 |
| C. Comprehension        | Yes 26 | No 0 |
| D. Main thought         | Yes 23 | No 3 |
| E. Using references     | Yes 25 | No 1 |
| F. Organizing facts     | Yes 19 | No 7 |
| G. Oral reading         | Yes 17 | No 9 |
| H. Relating facts       | Yes 18 | No 8 |
| I. Summarizing          | Yes 22 | No 4 |
| J. Interpreting         | Yes 17 | No 9 |
| K. Following directions | Yes 26 | No 0 |

3. I use the library  
More 12 Less 5 Same 9
4. I read in my leisure  
More 14 Less 4 Same 8
5. I read newspapers and magazines  
More 13 Less 10 Same 3
6. Three of my favorite books are:
  - 1.
  2. (Various titles listed here)
  - 3.
7. Here are some books I would like to have in my very own library:
  - 1.
  2. (Various titles listed here)
  - 3.
8. I like to read about:
 

1. History 8	5. Biographies 14
2. Science 8	6. Mysteries 21
3. Geography 6	7. Adventure 22
4. Animals 20	8. Sports 15
9. I have read this year:
 

1. History 9	5. Biographies 15
2. Science 10	6. Mysteries 21
3. Geography 9	7. Adventure 25
4. Animals 22	8. Sports 15

 (Students added the following areas: cooking, art, music, dictionary, and encyclopedias.)

Parents had been kept aware of their children's progress throughout the year by means of individual conferences. In May of each year a short letter containing a résumé of the procedures that had been followed was sent to the parents with the request that they assist the school in evaluating the success of the program. A composite of the two questionnaires affords us a summary of the parents' reactions. (Twenty-six questionnaires were sent home — twenty-three returned.)

1. Does your child appear to be reading more than previously?  
Yes 20 No 3
2. Is your child reading magazines and newspapers with increased interest?  
Yes 20 No 3
3. Have you noticed any new experiences gained through his reading which your child has related to you

or someone in your family?

Yes 18 No 1

4. Do you notice an increased interest in the public library?  
Yes 15 No 1

5. From your observations, do you feel this self-selection program in reading has been successful?  
Yes 23 No 1

## Summary

What conclusions may be drawn from this experience in teaching reading by means of self-selection?

Children are eager to read if they are provided with interesting materials on their reading level from which they can make their own selection.

Children in a self-selection program become acquainted with a great number and variety of good books.

A child in such an individualized program learns to evaluate his own growth and recognize the skills in which he needs improvement.

Growth in reading skills is as great in a self-selection program as in a basic text program.

Individual differences are provided for in a self-selection program with its wide range of interesting books at different levels of difficulty.

Close cooperation between the teacher, school librarian, public librarian, reading teacher, parents and the principal are essential to the success of this program.

The teacher who carries out such a program saves herself nothing in time or energy, but reaps a rich reward.

## Reading Improvement in Military, Government, and Business Agencies

by RALPH S. ACKER

● INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS BRANCH  
U. S. ARMY ENGINEER SCHOOL

A STUDY to determine the status of adult reading improvement programs in military, government, and business agencies was completed in February, 1960. This study was made to determine how the programs were organized; what the objectives were; what methods, equipment, procedures, and materials were being employed; and what results were being achieved. The survey technique of gathering data was used.

It was found that those aspects which would have to be surveyed to provide the desired information grouped themselves into the following areas of general information: programs of instruction, training personnel, test equipment and materials, training equipment (mechanical and non-mechanical), and results achieved.

After questions dealing with these seven areas were developed, the adequacy of these items was determined by submitting for evaluation a first draft of the survey form to fifty-five agencies with well established adult reading programs. All of these agencies evaluated the form and submitted suggestions for its improvement. These suggestions were then analyzed and incorporated in the second draft of the survey. This revised form was then sent to thirty of the fifty-five agencies to determine whether the data received would

yield the desired results. At the completion of the preliminary study certain deficiencies in item structure were found and corrected. The final form was then sent to 1,200 agencies. One hundred and seventy-seven of these military, government, and business agencies had reading improvement programs and participated in the study. Approximately thirteen hundred survey forms were mailed, and there were over eight hundred follow-up letters, telephone calls, and personal contacts during the progress of the study. It is reasonably certain that all major reading programs in existence in military and government agencies (as of the time of this survey) contributed to this study, and there are relatively few, if any, reading programs in major business agencies (as of the time of this survey) that did not contribute to it. The information received from these 177 participating agencies was compiled, placed in table form, and analyzed. From these analyses there became evident certain facts, opinions, and trends, which are discussed below.

### Programs of Instruction

1. The most frequently stated objectives of reading programs in the agencies surveyed were to increase the speed, comprehension, and vocabulary of adults.

2. The average program allotted

approximately twenty-five hours to attaining these objectives, although the range was between ten and fifty-five hours.

3. During this time major emphasis was placed on the mechanics of reading.

4. Forty-nine per cent of the agencies limited attendance to executives, supervisors, and selected employees. The remainder set no limitations.

5. Eighty-two per cent of the programs permitted the students to take training on a voluntary basis, most of them offering it during duty time.

6. In the opinion of the respondents, instructors were the most important factor in making adult reading programs successful.

7. In order for reading training to be of lasting value, the respondents considered that approximately twenty hours was the minimum length, and thirty-one hours the ideal length of a reading training program.

8. They considered that these hours should be distributed as follows — no less than three and no more than five hours per week.

9. Respondents were of the opinion that vocabulary and study habits training were helpful in a reading improvement program. Word analysis training was considered to be moderately helpful. Oral reading and literary appreciation training were considered to be of little help in reading improvement.

### **Training Personnel**

1. Approximately 60 per cent of the agencies operated small reading

programs, employing one person to conduct the training.

2. Almost all the instructors had received some college training. Sixty-seven per cent had received some training in the field of education. Of these, only 30 per cent, less than one-third, had received more than nine semester hours of instruction in reading.

3. Forty-three per cent had one year or less of teaching experience in the field of reading.

### **Methods**

1. The most commonly used pieces of mechanical equipment, in order of frequency, were tachistoscopes, reading rate controllers, and training films.

2. The most commonly used non-mechanical materials, in order of frequency, were reading improvement workbooks, periodicals, and vocabulary workbooks.

3. Textbooks and workbooks were emphasized by more agencies than any other single type of equipment or material.

4. The combination of mechanical and non-mechanical equipment and materials was found to be the most effective way to motivate students.

5. Approximately 60 per cent of the participants employed the group method of instruction, while 30 per cent combined the group with the individual method. The individual method alone was employed by only 10 per cent of the respondents.

6. There was general agreement that the reading rate controller is

highly valuable instrument for adult reading training.

7. Although they were not considered to be as valuable as the reading rate controller, the tachistoscope and training films were considered to be helpful.

8. There was overwhelming agreement that reading improvement workbooks are of high value in adult reading programs.

9. Although vocabulary workbooks and periodicals were considered to be helpful, they were not considered to be as valuable as reading improvement workbooks.

### Testing Devices

1. Almost all of the agencies employed at least one standardized test.

2. Approximately 64 per cent of them also developed non-standardized tests to meet local needs.

3. Vision tests were used by one-third of the participants.

4. Other devices, less frequently used, were intelligence and personality tests.

5. The participants in the study indicated that standardized and non-standardized tests were, in their opinion, of definite value in reading training programs.

6. Opinion was divided regarding the value of the ophthalmograph and vision testing devices, while intelligence and personality tests were considered to be of little value.

### Results Achieved

1. Approximately 98 per cent of the respondents evaluated the results of their training.

2. A variety of procedures were utilized, including standardized tests, non-standardized tests, ophthalmograph records, and effects on academic grades.

3. Standardized test results indicated that reading proficiency improved in all but a few individual cases.

4. The mean increase in reading speed was approximately 41 per cent and in comprehension 8 per cent.

5. The mean percentile increase in vocabulary was approximately 11 per cent.

6. Ophthalmograph records indicated that the mean number of fixations per 100 words, the mean duration of fixations, the mean number of regressions per 100 words were reduced, while the mean eye span was increased.

7. Graduates of adult reading programs registered overwhelming satisfaction with the training they received, and stated that they would recommend that others take it.

8. They felt that their reading habits had improved greatly and that they were doing considerably more voluntary reading. They also considered that additional training time would be of value to them.

9. There was agreement among the supervisors of reading program graduates that the work performance of these graduates improved as a result of their training. They also felt that the reading habits of graduates improved.

### Some Trends

1. There is a continuing trend



toward group and combination group and individual methods of instruction.

2. During the three years prior to the completion of this study there was a decided trend toward the use of non-mechanical materials.

3. Although the quantity of mechanical equipment in reading programs has not been appreciably reduced, the time per period of instruction has been reduced.

4. There is a definite trend toward developing new reading materials.

5. There was a noticeable trend toward the development of adult reading tests by the respondents.

### Overview

It is apparent that the military, government, and business agencies feel a definite need for reading improvement programs.

The type of program utilized by

these surveyed agencies is a flexible one, conforming to individual budgets, instructor abilities, or other local requirements. However, the aims are generally the same—to increase speed, comprehension, and vocabulary.

The desire of the participants to improve their reading programs has led to several important changes. The more important of these are:

1. More of the aspects which produce a mature adult reader are receiving emphasis.

2. Course lengths are being increased to enable these aspects to be properly developed.

3. Participants are developing their own reading materials to satisfy local requirements.

4. Considerable effort is being devoted to the development of testing devices which effectively measure adult reading proficiency.

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(Continued from Page 74)

word methods, experience considerable difficulty breaking the inner speech pattern. Seventh, reading becomes a visual-perception act as ideas apparently reach the thinking center in the brain directly via the optic nerves without being routed

through the speech center. Eighth, controlled research is needed to back up the obtainable affidavits of respectable, trustworthy citizens who have achieved phenomenally high rates. Ninth, it must be determined to what degree capacity to think is a controlling factor.—R. G. S.



## Vocabulary Development by Teaching Prefixes, Suffixes and Root Derivatives

by L. C. BREEN

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SANTA BARBARA COLLEGE

THE COMPETENT reader depends upon and uses many devices in the process of reading, such as sound, sight, association, audio-visual clues, and inferences of meaning which he obtains from the context. Word recognition has long been acknowledged as a criterion for reading, and it has been established that certain words are basically essential for the average reader. One of the problems confronting a teacher who is concerned with vocabulary development is to find ways and means to present words which will become a part of the child. Various word lists have been compiled and published from time to time. In general, such lists are merely lists of words and do not always present a challenge to the learner. One of the most recent has been the Rinsland word list (3). It is from the Rinsland word list that the material for this paper is derived.

As it is agreed that there are definite words that a child must know in order to do any kind of reading, we cannot rest upon the assumption that a child's vocabulary will increase as he passes from one grade to another. The teaching of syllabication has been suggested as a means of increasing vocabulary development (1). However, there are prefixes, suffixes, and Latin and Greek root derivatives that might be considered essentially as syllables,

but as syllables with meaning. And, when once learned, they make it possible for the child to have a large working vocabulary, provided he can make a transfer of training based upon the identical elements involved.

### Transfer of Training

Psychologists concede that a certain amount of transfer takes place in learning when the learner has the ability to perceive identical elements in the activities which are related. If this be true, it appears then useful to formulate for the child a basis in his thinking that definite meanings can and are attached to specific elements that are found and contained within words. With this in mind a summary of the frequency of the prefixes, suffixes, and Latin and Greek derivatives was made from the inventory or analysis of the Rinsland word list, and from this was derived a list of those most commonly used by children. As these constitute a large majority of the basic elements of a child's vocabulary, the development of a vocabulary may be aided by a working knowledge of the elements. These elements have meaning by themselves, and when combined with one or more elements or words do formulate a new word. With an understanding and knowledge of these elements, many words may be understood out of context, or liter-

# LATIN ROOT DERIVATIVES

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Participle</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Root Stem</i>	<i>Examples, English</i>
1. facere	factus	105	to do, to make	fac, fact, fic, fy, fied, fash	face, fact, factory, benefit, feat, fashion, purify
2. stare	status	89	to stand	sta, sti, stat, sist, st	station, status, insist, rest
3. ponere	positus	63	to place	pos, pose, pon, pound	pose, post, opposite, opponent, compound
4. ferre	tuli, latus	50	to bear, to carry	fer, ferre, lat, tol	coniferous, ferry, oblation, tolerate
5. regere	rectus	41	to rule	reg, rect, reign, roy, rul	direct, regal, ruler, regular, royal
6. mittere	missus	40	to send	mit, mis, miss, mes, mise	emit, mission, submit, surmise
7. tendere	tensus	38	to stretch	tend, tens	tend, tendor, tension
8. cedere	cessus	36	to go, to happen	ced, ces, cess, ceed	cede, session, secede
9. videre	visus	36	to see	vid, vis, view, vise	video, vision, visa, visit, advise
10. movere	motus	33	to move	mov, mot, mob	move, motivation, mobility
11. spectare	spectus	33	to see	spect, spic or pic	expect, spectacle, suspicion
12. venire	ventus	33	to come	ven, vent	event, vent, convenience
13. tenere	tentus	30	to hold	ten, tent, tain, tin	tent, tentacle, tenant, attain, continent
14. preparare	paratus	29	to get ready	par, para, pair	apparent, prepare, repair
15. portare	portatus	29	to carry	port	port, export, report, repair
16. capere	captus	28	to take, to head	cap, capt	cape, capion, capior, capital, capitol
17. ducere	ductus	26	to lead	duc, duct, duit	duct, conduct, conduit
18. quaerere	quaesitus	26	to question, to ask	quire, quis, quer, quest	acquire, requisition, conquer, conquest
19. servire	servitus	25	to serve	serv, serv	reserve, servant, service, serv
20. finire	finis	24	to end	fin	fine, finish, refinish
21. dare	datus	23	to give	da, don, der, di, dote	data, donate, add, pardon, render, antidoic
22. participare	participatus <sup>1</sup>	23	to share,	part	depart, partide, participate
23. significare	significatus <sup>2</sup>	23	to indicate,	signific, sign, less, fic	significant, sign, signify
24. trahere	tractus	23	to notify, to mark	tra, tract, trait, treat	trace, traction, trait, retreat
25. generare	generatus	23	to pull, to draw	gen, gener	generate, Genesis, generation
26. ligere	lectus	22	cause to be,	lect	elect, re-elect, select
27. agere	actus	21	to begin	ag, act	agent, act, action
28. plicare	plicatus	21	to choose	pli, plic, ply	applied, complicated, duplicate, reply
29. iacere or iacere	jectus	20	to fold	ject	eject, defection, project
30. premere	pressus	20	to throw	press	depress, press, impress
31. struere	structus	19	to press	struct, stroy, stru	construct, instrument, destroy, structure
32. venire or versare	versus	19	to build	vert, vers, verse	advertise, convert, reverse, verse
33. cadere	caesus	18	to turn	cid, cide	accident, decide, incident
34. cordare <sup>3</sup>	cordatus	17	to fall, to happen	cord, cour	accord, concord, cordially, discourage
35. fortis <sup>4</sup>	fortis	17	heart	fort, force	comfort, effort, force, fort

ally. The idea implied by the literal meaning will give a common meaning or definite understanding of the word itself, and when used in context the meaning will become clarified.

It is in thinking in terms of single parts and their relationship to one another that a whole word will develop meaning. It is not contemplated to teach all the prefixes, suffixes, and root derivatives found in the analysis of the Rinsland word list. To do this would be a tremendous task. For example, there are 241 Latin root derivatives which occur five or more times (2).

### Latin and Greek Word Roots

From the list which is given in this paper the Latin infinitive *facare* and its parts are used more often than any other. Actually, *fac* is one of the real root stems found in our English words, as well as the chief element found in the Rinsland word list. The element *fac* assumes many forms as: *face*, *fact*, *feat*, *fec*, *fic*, *fly*, *fied*, *fit*, *feas*, and *fash*. Again, to teach all these forms initially would be difficult. Children should be informed that the Romans carried their language and many Greek words to all parts of the ancient world. Also, that it is to be noted that in the course of time changes did take place in pronunciation and spelling. For example, the word *face* is found in the English and French language and is spelled exactly the same way and has practically the same meaning in both languages. In the Spanish language the root stem *facare* has

had a change in spelling. The *f* became an *h* and the infinitive became *hacer* instead of *facare*. Furthermore, we find that many of the root stems are basic to the romantic languages and imply practically the same meaning as shown in the list.

From the study made by Osburn and Sheldon of the 14,571 words found in the Rinsland list, 4,382 words came from the Latin roots directly. Two hundred and nine of these words do have a Greek basis. In addition, there are 289 words which came from the Greek directly into the language. "Among the Latin word roots, 82 occur ten or more times, thus accounting for 1,631 of the 4,382 Latin word roots in the entire list. Among the Greek word roots, six occur ten times, thus accounting for 79 of the 289 Greek word roots in the list." From this it is clearly evident that it would be valuable to acquaint our pupils with 82 Latin words and 6 Greek words which are found in the elementary school vocabulary (1).

In connection with this it seems quite evident that as a pupil's vocabulary develops he will use more of the words which came from the Latin and Greek root derivatives found in this analysis. A further and additional analysis points to the fact that combinations of similar elements form a common pattern for suffixes and prefixes. These patterns are clearly evident when we consider again that changes took place in spelling or pronunciation. An example of this is the prefix *in*, which

## GREEK ROOT DERIVATIVES

<i>Root Word</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Root Stem</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Example, English</i>
1. graph	22	graph (gram)	to write	barograph, graph, phonograph
2. syn	14	syn (syl, sys)	together	synthesis, synthetic
3. kyklos	11	(cir, circl, cycle)	ring	circle, circumference, cyclone
4. organor	11	org, organ	organ	organ, organize
5. phonos	11	phon, phone	sound	phonetic, telephone
6. monos	10	mon, mono	one	monotone, monotonous, monologue
7. tele	9	tel, tele	far off	telephone, television
8. polis	9	pol, poli	city	metropolis, politics
9. auto	8	auto	self	automobile, automatic
10. phos	8	phos (phot)	light	phosphate, phosphorus, photograph
11. mousa	7	(muse)	muse, to think	muse, museum, musical
12. para	7	para	beside	parallel, paraphrase
13. physis	7	phys	nature	physics, physical
14. logas	7	log	word, reason	logical, biology
15. dia	6	dia	through	dia, diameter
16. mikras	6	(micro)	small	microbe, microscope
17. prakticos	6	(pract)	to	practice, practical
18. character	5	chara	engraving	character, characteristics
19. hudor or hydra	5	hydra	water	hydrogen, hydromatic

## PREFIXES

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Total frequency for groups</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
1. in	(203)		in, into, and not
en	(83)		
im	(42)		
em	(21)	349	
2. re	(209)	209	again
3. a	(149)		to, toward
ad	(53)		
ap	(47)		
at	(29)	278	
4. de	(146)		from, away from, apart
dis	(82)	228	
5. ex	(145)		out of, out from
e	(63)	208	
6. con	(145)	145	together
7. com	(95)		together with
col	(29)	124	
8. o	(65)		against, away from
op	(22)		
of	(15)		
ob	(12)	114	
9. pro	(58)		before, for
pre	(35)	93	
10. al	(40)		pertaining to, like
ar	(39)	79	
11. an	(68)	68	belonging to
12. ac	(56)	56	pertaining to
13. be	(45)	45	around, all over, act of being, action
14. for	(44)	44	away, off
15. di	(43)	43	doubly, to separate
Total		2,083	

## SUFFIXES

Suffix	Frequency	Total frequencies for groups	Meaning	Example, English
1. er or	(323) (114)	337	action or a process, something that does something	teller, grocer, teacher
2. tion tions sion cion	(210) (56) (24) (9)	289	action	temptation (the word action means literally the action of acting)
3. ty	(95)	95	condition	empty, safety
4. al	(84)	84	pertaining to	musical, practical
5. ble, able, ible	(82)	82	capable of being	adaptable, preventable, sociable
6. ment	(73)	73	action or the result of action	judgment, supplement
7. full	(44)	44	full, complete	forceful, meaningful
8. man	(43)	43	human, man	foreman, superman
9. ic or ics	(34) (7)	41	pertaining to	tellic, <sup>1</sup> phonetic
10. ous ious eous <sup>2</sup>	(34)	34	full of, like	delicious, joyous
11. ence ance	(16) (13)	29	action, state of being, relating to, state of, quality	assistance, distance, romance, persistence
Total		1,151		

<sup>1</sup>The *ic* followed by *al* is an example of what might be termed a double syllable combined as one, as each syllable has the same meaning (pertaining to).

<sup>2</sup>The syllables *ious* and *eous* are to be considered as forms of *ous*.

took the form of *an* and *en*, and also became *em* and *im*.

## Conclusion

A knowledge of prefixes and suffixes is essential to vocabulary development. Likewise, the Latin roots which make up about 30 per cent of the elementary vocabulary are basic for vocabulary development and the expansion of word knowledge. Statistical evidence points out that the ones listed in this paper are the most important ones, and with this in mind it is recommended that consideration

be thus given: "The ultimate aim of a word analysis program is to help pupils become independent in their attack on new words and it is important that their experiences encourage independence."

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# Certificate Requirements for Reading Specialists

by CARL H. HAAG,  
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UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

**P**ROVISION FOR specialized reading instruction in both elementary and secondary schools is increasing rapidly. A demand for reading teachers is apparent both in teacher placement bureaus and in the swelling enrollment of college extension courses and summer session workshops.

More direct evidence of this expanding interest can be found in curriculum surveys. For example, a systematic sampling of Michigan public high schools in 1956 revealed that 35 per cent of those responding (84 per cent) had specialized reading programs of one kind or another. In the city systems, 71 per cent reported such programs.\*

Since a rapidly increasing demand for personnel often leads to the appointment of ill-prepared or marginal candidates, it seemed pertinent to determine what safeguards are operating. A survey of state teacher certification agencies was undertaken to determine the nature and extent of certification requirements.

## Procedure

A questionnaire with an explanatory covering letter was sent to the Director of Certification in each of

the fifty states. The following information was requested:

1. Do you have certification requirements for any of the following?  
Reading Supervisor  
Reading Co-ordinator  
Reading Specialist  
Reading Therapist  
Reading Director  
Other
2. What year were these requirements enacted?
3. What is the nature of the requirements (number of hours and breakdown of courses, internship requirements, etc.)?

Printed brochures were requested if they contained this information.

## Results

Questionnaires were returned by forty-six of the fifty states (92 per cent). States not reporting were Arkansas, Kansas, Nevada, and Wyoming. Of those responding, 12 states (26 per cent) have certification requirements for specialists in reading. Thirty-four (74 per cent) have no such requirements. While most of the state certification officers simply replied in the negative, a few pointed out that a regular teaching certificate is required, and, in the case of Missouri, a Secondary English Certificate is necessary. While it is very likely that all of the above states require a teaching certificate

\*Donald E. P. Smith. "The Status of Reading Instruction in Michigan Public High Schools," University of Michigan, *School of Education Bulletin*, 27 (March, 1956), 91-94.



# STATE REQUIREMENTS FOR APPROVAL OF READING SPECIALISTS

STATE	Conn. <sup>1</sup>	Del.	Mass. <sup>2</sup>	Miss.	N. H.	N. J.	N. Mex.	Ore.	Ohio	Penn.	Utah	Wisc.
FORM OF CERTIFICATES	+	•	+	••	+	+	+	••	*	••	+	+
Degree	B	M	B	M	B	B	B	B	M	B	B	B
Years of teaching	3	3	0	2	3	0	0	1	3	0	3	0
Months of Internship	0	10	0	0	1.5	0	0	4	0	0	0	0
Year Enacted	'55	- <sup>8</sup>	'56	'57	59-60	- <sup>4</sup>	-	'56	'57	'46	'55	'58
Credit hours <sup>6</sup>	15	21	21	27	30	18	4	36	18	24	16 1/4	12
Reading	15	12	18	12	6		4	6		9		6
Spec. Ed.				6				6		3		3
Testing					3			3		3		
Counseling					3							
Child & Adol.												3
Lit.												
Develop. Psych.					3			3				
Clin. & Abn. Psych.										3		
Ment. Hyg.		3								3		
Motiv. & Learn.		3			3							
Adm. & Superv.		3	3	9					18			
Cognates										3		

<sup>1</sup>Special endorsement on teaching certificate.

<sup>2</sup>Certificate: Reading Consultant.

<sup>3</sup>Certificate: Special Education Supervisor.

<sup>4</sup>Secondary school only.

<sup>5</sup>MA and 9 hours in administration and supervision required for certification at second level (reading consultant or supervisor).

<sup>6</sup>Changes proposed (1960): practicum in reading; add 3 hours in clinical and abnormal psychology; increase experience to 5 years.

<sup>7</sup>Proposal for added requirements for special certification under consideration (1959-60).

<sup>8</sup>Some states specify number of courses rather than number of credit hours. In each such case, one course was assumed equivalent to three credit hours.

at a minimum, it is not known whether any others have limitations similar to those of Missouri.

Minnesota does not currently have special requirements, but the State Advisory Committee on Teacher Education has proposed two levels of preparation and certification. At one level are the requirements for Remedial Reading Teachers in either elementary or secondary schools: teaching certificate, bachelor's degree, two years of teaching experience, and five or six courses, respectively. Proposed requirements for the second level, Reading Consultant, Supervisor, or Co-ordinator, are as follows: teaching certificate, master's degree, three years of teaching experience (including one year as a "reading teacher") and at least ten courses, both prescribed and suggested.

A summary of the special certification provisions and requirements in twelve states is presented above.

The amount of variation in requirements from state to state is considerable. Required academic training ranges from four to thirty-six hours in addition to the course work necessary for a bachelor's degree and a regular teaching certificate. The courses most frequently stipulated are in reading, special education, administration and super-

vision, testing and measurement, and psychology. At least one year of regular classroom teaching experience is necessary in seven of the twelve states, but only three states require a period of internship in a school or reading clinic. Three states require a master's degree.

The fact that eight of the twelve states which certify special reading teachers and consultants have enacted their requirements within the last five years seems to indicate that active interest in providing remedial or developmental reading instruction in the schools is relatively recent. That concern with the problem continues is suggested by the modifications currently under consideration in two other states (Delaware and New Jersey) and by the proposal for certification of reading specialists in at least one state (Minnesota) which does not at present have such provisions. It seems reasonable to anticipate that this trend will continue, and that within the next decade more and more states will be providing for special certification of teachers of remedial and developmental reading.

If so, it may be appropriate for a professional organization such as the International Reading Association to recommend standards for the guidance of state agencies.

#### A CORRECTION

The correct address of the Essay Press (publishers of the Roswell-Chall Diagnostic Test) is P.O. Box 5, Planetarium Station, New York 24, New York.

## The RISI Individualized Reading Program

by L. F. FOWLER

● NORTHWESTERN STATE COLLEGE  
OF LOUISIANA

THE TIME was ripe in 1957 for cooperative action by two teachers of fourth-year pupils and the supervising principal at Northwestern State College's Elementary School in Louisiana. These three were not pleased with the reading interest or progress, or with the general reading program at the fourth-year level in the two classrooms of these teachers. Through a review of selected literature in the field of individualized reading, and after much cooperative study and planning, action was taken to move toward an individualized reading program, which is now known by those in the Northwestern Elementary Laboratory School as the RISI Individualized Reading Program.

### The Program

RISI stands for Reading, Interest, Sharing, and Instruction. The program is one of reading and sharing many books of different interests and of different reading levels. As pupils improve in ways of sharing parts of what they have read, their interests become greater and therefore more reading is motivated. Also, as pupils share in a variety of ways, their weaknesses in the skills of reading will be seen. This helps the teacher to know where to work with pupils so as to improve their different reading skills. Under the guidance of the teacher the pupils select books of

their interests and at their reading levels.

Classroom reading is begun in many different ways, depending upon the cooperative planning of the teacher and the pupils. In some cases the pupils begin to read silently while the teacher lists on the chalk board ways of attacking words that may give pupils trouble. She may call their attention to the many different ways they may choose to share parts of their stories. The children are reading, making plans to share, working on reading skills in small groups with the help of the teacher. At another time one may see the pupils sitting in four small circles sharing their stories in a variety of ways (movies, flannel-gram, dramatization, book character, poster, mural), while the teacher is conducting a progress report conference with an individual child. The program is a flexible one which permits all types of experiences in reading, writing, speaking, listening, and allows plenty of time for the teacher to give instruction to small groups and individual pupils.

The RISI reading program is flexible enough to include the following list of selected, recommended, teaching practices:

1. Cooperative teacher-pupil planning, executing, sharing, and evaluating as the basic process of teaching and learning.
2. Pupil directed programs under the guidance of the teacher.

3. Variety of group action and interaction.
4. Variety of activities provided for a definite purpose.
5. Reading of many books of different interests and at different levels.
6. Flexible grouping within the classroom.
7. Flexible room arrangement.
8. Many media for creative activities.
9. High interest among pupils and teacher.
10. Group acceptance of individual pupils.
11. Good purposes for reading.
12. Attention to individual difference of pupils.
13. Use of the large block of time.
14. Use of, and instruction in, the language arts skills—reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

### Possible Problems

The RISI individualized program requires the use of *many* books of different interests and of different reading levels. The services of a centralized library, plus the usage of many supplementary readers, seem to be a "must" if the program is to succeed.

The balance of, or wise use of, time could be another problem. Children learn to read by reading under the guidance and instruction of the teacher. Interest and motivation are developed through sharing. The wise teacher must plan well so as to have time for reading, sharing, and instruction. Children must read, but they must be helped with their reading skills. Reading is better if interest is high; therefore, time must be planned for sharing and building interest. Continuous evaluation of time used in reading, sharing, and instructing are important to the success of the program. A seventy-minute block of time was used daily for the total reading program. Over

about six weeks, or a longer period, an effort was made to keep the time equally divided among reading, sharing, and instructing. The study seemed to show that this balance is good for the total program.

### Results After Three Years

Interest in reading is very high among the fourth-year pupils. The pupils and teachers are very happy in their reading program, and are *reading and reading*. A majority of the pupils read from thirty to seventy-five books on their reading levels each year. A few of the children read over a hundred books in a school term. Before the study was begun most pupils read fewer than ten books at the fourth-year level. Achievement tests and teacher observation show that a majority of the pupils progress more than 1.5 grade levels in reading each year, compared to less than one grade level made by a majority of the fourth-year pupils before this program was begun. The poor readers seem to make the greatest progress in reading skills, as well as making personality improvement. The many types of experiences provided in the sharing program do much for the total development of all the pupils.

If children learn to *read through reading*, then the RISI is a good program. The boys and girls at the fourth-year level in this study are reading every spare moment. The method is not a cure-all, but the pupils have made more progress in the RISI program than in the basal program of former years.

## Puppetry and the Individualized Reading Program

by HERBERT SCHWARTZBERG

● NEW YORK CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE INDIVIDUALIZED reading program has proved astonishingly successful in a wide variety of classrooms. It has been successful because it has brought about a basic reorientation of viewpoint. Instead of concerning ourselves with the number of levels on which a teacher can teach, we are now concerned with the one level on which each child can learn.

Many of the activities in the individualized reading program, are, as the name suggests, carried on by the individual child. In some of these activities the child makes contact with his classmates, as, for example, when he reports on a book, "sells" a book, or reads a vivid passage. However, the name given the procedure is not inclusive enough, since there are times when children are drawn together on the basis of mutuality of interest or need. Here we have what might better be called a socialized individualized reading program. The occasion for joining together might be the learning of a particular skill or the practice of a group activity such as dramatics, choral speaking, or puppetry.

One of the most valuable of the group activities and the one that is the concern of this article is puppetry. Puppetry is more than a means of bringing children together to utilize reading and the other communication skills in a functional setting. It is a means of meeting children's needs

for social and emotional growth. It serves to give the teacher a fresh and insightful look at the child in the act of projecting his hostilities and externalizing his conflicts and his confusions. It provides a ready-made speech program for the teacher. It promotes the ideal of democratic interaction in a practical classroom situation. It encourages artistic and handicraft talents and skills. It offers a rewarding opportunity to every child for the development of his unique being.

The values delineated above are attainable by the classroom teacher through experiences in a medium that is fundamentally appealing to children. Children love hand puppets. They love to make them, to handle them, to talk to them, and to make them talk. Perhaps their love for puppets is in essence the love they have for dolls, with the additional element that the doll has become animate. Anyone who has seen young children watch a puppet drama unfold recognizes here a deep-seated interest, begging to be built upon.

There are puppets of varying degrees of complexity of design and construction for all children. The nursery or kindergarten child can use a paper bag, a potato, a rubber ball, or a stuffed stocking toe for his puppet head. Another paper bag or a handkerchief draped over the hand does for a body. The seven-to-nine



year old may wrap newspaper around a tube and fasten the paper down with tape; cover the whole with one of mother's old stockings, decorate with lipstick and eyebrow pencil, and away we go. Or, if he is advanced for his age he may try making a papier-mâché head, with more elaborate dress cut to pattern and sewed. Now he may be using ornaments from the rag bag or from the five and ten cent store, and seeking artistic and decorative effects.

The intermediate grade child will experiment with materials for a variety of results. He may try hair of steel wool or of scraps of fur, of wool, or of crepe paper. He may seek greater realism of features, or he may deliberately exaggerate the features. He is minutely examining individual items and observing the Gestalt made up of the sum of the parts. Here is an example of the constant critical examination and re-evaluation that the use of an artistic medium demands of its practitioner. This same attitude is carried over into the making of the costumes, the painting of the backdrops, the making of the props, and the decoration of the stage. It is equally effective in the selection of the story and in the development of the play.

But no matter what the puppet the child has made, it is a creation of his very own and an expression of his desire to create in a plastic medium. In making his puppet he has handled paper, clay, cloth, scissors, needle and thread, paints, fur, wool, and paste. He has shaped, built and cut. He has conceived a

project and brought it into successful reality. The making of puppets could be justified in itself for the artistic, creative, and psychological values so far achieved.

But the puppet has not yet come alive. Not until the child puts his hand into the costume and moves the head and body and speaks for his puppet does it become endowed with a personality of its own; this personality, strangely enough, is to a large extent independent of and divorced from its creator and manipulator. To free this personality, the manipulator need but disappear and allow the puppet to usurp the stage.

Any device that will conceal the child but leave the puppet open to view will do for early experimentation. An open-bottom box placed on a draped table, or a piece of cloth stretched across a doorway makes a workable though limited stage that will satisfy the very young child. With seven-to-nine year olds, a simple classroom stage consisting in the main of the proscenium, sides and curtain can be made of firring strips and colored burlap at a very nominal cost. This collapsible stage can be set on two desks and set up in seconds.

For older children, the same type of stage can be extended downward so that it becomes self-supporting. The entire frame is covered with monk's cloth, burlap, or canvas.

In most instances beginning puppeteers are not satisfied unless their puppets speak to an audience. This is the logical fulfillment of the activity they have undertaken. Should the



children show any shyness at performing, the puppets might be asked to sing songs. The children would comment on the effectiveness of the presentation; inevitably the need for moving the puppet and for synchronizing speech and movement would be brought out. The simple technique of rotating the wrist from side to side to simulate walking, and moving the head and hands to give the appearance of speaking would then be pointed out. To further familiarize the children with an audience situation, stories or jokes might be told or poems said.

Additional experience might be gained by having the children depict everyday situations in their lives. In one class, an emotionally disturbed boy of ten told a delightfully humorous story of a laggard scholar who tarried abed until threatened with "the strap." Alternately, he speeded up and slowed down. When he finally got to school, he found that both teacher and principal had "the strap."

Young children of five and six years of age enjoy joining together to enact stories such as "The Three Bears," "The Billy Goats Gruff," and "Jack and the Beanstalk." At any age, the group should feel free to choose its story. The suitability of the story for puppet presentation should be discussed, and the form of the play crystallized. Scenery and props must be made and their care entrusted to chosen custodians. Volunteers for roles are tried out with the understanding that every child must have his chance. The various

efforts are discussed and weighed; the children respect the feelings of their classmates out of consideration for them and in the knowledge that they themselves may soon be "on the pan." The children decide what is good and worth keeping and what should be modified or discarded.

Constantly, the value of the individual contribution comes to the fore. To the surprise of the class and of the teacher, hidden talents bloom. The retiring child is revealed as a wonderful manipulator of puppets, the competent director of a group, or the skillful creator of scenery and props. The non-reading child displays his facility in extempore speech. Talents in sewing, in writing and in speaking spring forth to meet the demands for them. Children hitherto considered by classroom standards to be dull or without interests or talents often find in puppetry a means of achieving status in their own and in their classmates' eyes.

Both oral and silent reading tend to show marked gains in the classroom where children have an opportunity to work with puppets. The slow reader often will search through short familiar folk and fairy tales for those suitable for adaptation. With his group he may devise an original sketch or play that must be written down for reading and re-reading, to insure familiarity with lines and continuity of action. The children's inadequacies in oral reading are glaringly pointed up when their lines are read stumbingly. They recognize their shortcomings and set out to improve upon them.

The children quickly learn the advantage gained in telling an inherently interesting story. With a little practice they can soon analyze a story to determine its potentialities for presentation. They become aware of the possibilities of their medium and its limitations; they learn to deal with the limitations by the use of the drawn curtain, the narrator, or simply by drawing upon their audience's imagination. They learn to think of their play in terms of the particular audience they must face; what is suitable for kindergartners may miss fire entirely with a sixth grade and yet delight a P.T.A. gathering. They learn to consider time in a new light, as a concomitant of interest. They learn to evaluate their materials and their audience.

Although children may learn much through the use of puppets, it is a dangerous business to think of using puppets deliberately to promote reading or the other classroom skills in themselves. This is killing the goose that lays the golden educational eggs. However, by encouraging puppetry in those areas of the curriculum where it legitimately fits, enriched learnings take place. One such area where puppetry belongs is the social studies. For younger children, puppets can dramatize the home, family and community relationships that are so important in the child's life. The stories might tell how parents, brothers and sisters, teachers, firemen and policemen act out their roles in the child's daily life. In the intermediate grades, the age of exploration, the early settlements, the

practice of indenture and frontier life and customs provide materials for research, for writing, and for expression through puppetry.

Poetry can be enriched by the use of puppets. Mother Goose rhymes such as "Little Miss Muffet," "Little Jack Horner," "Simple Simon" and "Wee Willie Winkie" can be enacted as the words are spoken. Poetry involving dialogue, such as Rose Fyleman's "Friday Street," Lear's "The Courtship of the Yonghy Bonghy Bo," and Carroll's "The Walrus and the Carpenter" lends itself to puppet presentation. Folk ballads are particularly popular among intermediate grade boys and girls. Typical of these are "The Keys of Canterbury," "A Paper of Pins," and "The Quaker's Wooing."

Many of the fine children's trade books contain suitable scenes for adaptation. E. B. White's *Stuart Little* yields many delightful scenes. One thought-provoking bit tells how Stuart, who is a mouse, becomes a substitute teacher for a morning. Since Stuart would abolish most of the regular curriculum as foolish or unnecessary, children love this excerpt. Mr. White's *Charlotte's Web*, Kenneth Grahame's *The Wind in the Willows*, and Hugh Lofting's *The Story of Dr. Doolittle* are among the many books of great interest.

The tried and true classics are mines of puppet materials. In one fifth-year class the children dramatized scenes from *Through the Looking Glass*, "Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves," "Dick Whittington and His Cat," "The Pied Piper of

Hamelin," "Casey at the Bat," and many others. They did full length versions of "Rumpelstiltskin," "Cinderella," "Rapunzel," and "The Sorcerer's Apprentice." They toured the school and sparked a school-wide puppetry program.

The children's own interests and experiences make up a large reservoir of puppetry materials. The present writer has been particularly fascinated by the quality of the puppetry done by boys of low socioeconomic background who are overage, slow learners. Recently such a group, under the leadership of a "disciplinary case" transferred out of his previous class for having spat at his teacher, did a hilarious story they called "The Lucky Gamblers." They told how five boys were picked up by the police and carried off to jail for playing dice. After the police had locked up the boys, they took the dice and started a game among themselves while the cellmates watched. The situations posed were basically humorous and the dialogue was lively and witty. The boys performed for other classes and were warmly received. The choice of subject and the manner of handling it led the boys rather far from the usual fifth-grade curriculum. However, it gave them a successful creative experience within the school, built good classroom relationships, taught them to cooperate for a worthwhile end, and helped them in the language arts skills. Furthermore it gave the teacher a good look at his charges as they were, and not as he might have wished them to be.

Puppetry is of great value in dealing with speech in the classroom. Since the average teacher is at sea in the techniques of speech correction she fulfills her responsibilities by frequent criticisms of speech patterns, voice quality and enunciation without accomplishing anything constructive. But it behooves the puppet speaker to be exceptionally clear voiced and articulate. Children see at once that they cannot hold their audience if they cannot be heard. Their first criticisms point this out. Since his peers put so much value in his speech, the child cannot help but do likewise. When older children have the responsibility of performing for the lower grades they are extremely careful of their speech patterns and of what they say.

Generally such speech deviations as stuttering and stammering are even more inadequately handled than the usual classroom difficulties. However, even stuttering and stammering tend to disappear in puppetry, just as they do in choric speech. It would be foolish to offer incidental puppetry as full treatment for an emotionally based speech disability, but certainly the results we get are worth grasping. In fact we may often be getting more than we think we are settling for.

The possibilities for the development of critical judgment and aesthetic appreciation in art have been suggested above. Creative experiences in painting and in dressing the puppets call for selection, design and the use of various handicraft skills.

(Continued on Page 117)

## Another Look at the Fairy Tales

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**R**ECENTLY THERE has been resurgence of interest in the "fairy tale" as a kind of literature for children. Not that this type of story ever totally disappeared, for it certainly did not. But we did go through a phase of doubts about these stories as suitable reading material for children, particularly from the standpoints of their unwholesome psychological effects, their undemocratic values, their "eye for an eye and tooth for a tooth" ethics. Now, again, there seems to be a renewed interest, an upsurging in publishing in this field. There are coming from leading publishing houses handsome collections of the old tales, single stories beautifully illustrated, and some collections of fairy tales from other cultures not previously widely known in our country.

Perhaps, in part, encouragement has been given by television, for any number of the familiar old stories have recently been employed as dramatic vehicles. Perhaps, too, the extensive discussion of "basic" education has had an effect. It might be that the "one world" concept encourages renewed attention to folk stories. Or, again, it may simply be that, in the full cycle of literary movements, the time is right for new editions of old favorites. Whatever the causes, this is a good moment to reconsider these old stories, to take another look

at their place in the totality of today's literature for children.

First, let us remember that the term "fairy tale" is frequently used loosely as a covering term for many varieties of old story. In the strict sense of the word, many such old stories are not "fairy" tales at all. Some of them are accumulative tales, depending for their delight on repetition and rig-a-ma-role language. Some are "talking animal" stories. Some are droll stories, based on the crude mistakes and the foibles of humankind. And some are old horror stories, or disintegrated myths, or hero tales. And then there are the true "fairy" tales, in which magic and preternatural creatures are essential ingredients. Of course all of these old household tales have certain things in common. They have all come to us from other peoples, other cultures, many of them truly ancient. They are all older than the American culture. But, over and beyond their common characteristics, each type must be assessed in terms of its own essential qualities, particularly with reference to the symbolic roots, the sources of motivation, the distinctive elements of craftsmanship.

The "fairy tales," like "Cinderella," "Beauty and the Beast," "Rumpelstiltskin," or "Hansel and Gretel," are deeply rooted in wish fulfillment and the struggle between

good and evil in one's own life. The wish for status or for recognition, the wish to be essential in the lives of others is often central in these old stories. So is struggle central—the struggle between poverty and economic security, between enslavement and freedom, between life and death, between lovelessness and love. The fulfillment of the wishes and the outcomes of the struggles are, in fairy tales, highly romantic solutions, dependent on magic and the aid of some preternatural creature to make the story come out to "live happily ever after." In these regards, then, one would want to select fairy tales for children with these criteria in mind: Are the children mature enough to discriminate, with reasonable sophistication, between real persons and elves, fairies, or wee folk? Are they able to cope with the difference between truly scientific phenomena and magic? (For the fancifulness of the magic must be an added element of enjoyment rather than a point of confusion and thus a deterrent to the full savoring of the story.) Are the wish fulfillments and the struggles for what is good in life those that touch children's feelings for life rather than purely adult desires and problems? Is this a story whose symbolic roots are so universal that the children, at their present levels of development, can respond aesthetically to the symbolism employed?

When one looks further at the true "fairy tales," he notices that each character seems to be all good or all bad. Empathy for the hero is so skill-

fully developed that he is an ideal; the villain can be heartily rejected, so effectually is he developed as a blackguard. Even the preternatural creatures tend to be categorized: witches are bad; fairies and fairy godmothers are good. Indeed, godmothers are good, stepmothers are bad. Between sisters and brothers, oldest children are indolent, ugly, mean-hearted; youngest are industrious, kind, generous. Such depictions are, of course, purely romantic conceptions of human behavior, but they serve the plottings of events in the fairy tales very well. To achieve such strong contrasts, these stories often employ cruelty and brutality in their plot development. While goodness and virtue prevail, it is not an easy matter, and the hero probably will be subjected to tests of stamina and character that are fully described, even to gory details. And when the villains are finally dealt with, they too often meet their downfall in no gentle fashion. The wheels of justice roll heavily in many fairy tales.

Again, from this angle, one might well want to apply certain criteria. Are these stories too frightening for these particular children? Are the hero's total qualities those with which, in general, one would want children to empathize? Are these children capable of coping with the kinds of stereotypes met in this story? Is their maturity such that they can distinguish between the literary characterization proposed and real-life personalities?

The place settings of fairy tales,



too, are distinctive. "Far away," "in a lovely castle," "in a kingdom by the sea" are of the essence of the fancy which is, necessarily, developed. Specificity of locale is avoided. While such aspects of locale as are mandatory for the development of the plot are fully described, they are not the recognizable locales that one would find in realistic stories. They give the story its mood of romance; they give the storyteller a freedom of movement that actual settings cannot give. And they lend an opulence to the story, which whets the interest and imagination. Again, in selecting fairy tales for children, one would ask if the children have sufficient sophistication to enjoy fully the delightful extravagance of the make-believe setting. Does the setting help him to respond to the characters and the happenings? Is the setting one for which the children can get some clues for picturing places? For every story has to be somewhere, and the somewhere of fairy tales is quite different from the child's own neighborhood. It is even quite different from "just around the corner."

Looked at still another way, the fairy tale frequently is built around fabulous undertakings—adventures, if you will. These are fabulous tasks to be performed, enchantments to be overcome, transformations to be accomplished, or flights from the wicked. High adventure is also accompanied by such aids as magic wings, talking mirrors, cloaks to make one invisible, and magic numbers (3, 5, 7, for example). These adventures are told with verve and

alacrity, with a quality of craftsmanship that is the epitome of superb narrative style. While these adventures are founded on fanciful happenings, they are, simultaneously, only extensions of the attempts of man to solve fundamental problems. That the accomplishments are aided by magic does not belie the human reality of the problem. What the magic seems to say is that, since the individual just cannot accomplish his ends alone and they are ends which he must achieve, it is, of course, reasonable to let magic work for one. The hero must, of course, do his share, but where he cannot go it alone, there is the added boost, and that is the legerdmain of wand, charm, and spell.

Again criteria for selection come to mind: Is the adventure one that not only stimulates the children's imaginations but also one in which they can participate both at the fanciful and realistic levels? Is the magic of a kind that leads the hero on to do more on his own? Is the total effect of the adventure one that children will comprehend?

In so many instances, people have assumed that the fairy tale is the heritage of young children. From what has been written here, it would seem that very few fairy tales are really for the very young. To be a real reader of fairy tales, the child needs enough sophistication to be able to enjoy the many fanciful elements because they seem real without being real. He needs enough maturity to comprehend somewhat the idealism, the "make-believe," the



romantic "nowhere" which is the "somewhere" of the story, the basic truth to life which undergirds the truth to fancy. And he needs enough aesthetic maturity to sense the impact of coming at life through fancy, to see the impossible, improbable, and incongruous as a wonderful way to put life together, to grasp hold of segments of reality, to know intimately what is *not* as what is.

The fairy tales may take some sensitive selecting for particular children, but the numbers of these old stories are so great that it is not difficult, really, to choose among them. It is particularly easy if one gives up the notion that certain of these old tales necessarily should be presented to young children. It is particularly easy if an extensive collection of fairy tales is readily available. It is easy if one knows the children to whom the fairy tales are to be presented — knows the children not as statistics but as vital human beings.

So long as the universe is not, in its totality, organized by reason, so long as man remains an individual rather

than a cypher or a cog in a machine; so long as there are reasonable doubts about the finality of man's wisdom, about the static nature of truth, there will be a place for wonder, for astonishment, and for the pursuit of the insuperable. Which means that there will be a place for magic, for "make-believe," for fairy tales.

### *Some Selected Readings about Fairy Tales*

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## Phonetics, Related to Listening and Reading Skills

by MABEL ASPDEN

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WHEN A child comes for remedial reading, the teacher assumes that he has been shown the contextual, the configurational, the sight words and syllable skills in his regular classroom work, and that it has not been enough to help him read well. Must she continue to give him more of the same or may she concentrate on listening to sounds in words and applying this knowledge to the sounding-out skill in spelling and reading?

How may she help a child to independence unless she does drill phonetics, particularly when he consistently calls *g*, *gr*—or *r*, *gr*? How can she keep him from inserting *l*, *r* or *n* into words otherwise? Why do some children say *sh* for *s*?

Educators frequently say, "Yes, but don't teach too much of it." What is too much? Why do we say this? Are we afraid of phonetics? Maybe the answer is, we don't know how to teach it. It is difficult, and the teacher must be painstaking, but the children in the low-achiever group need phonetic skills and can use them effectively.

To build up a knowledge of phonetics I use picture cards that also have the word printed on them.\* The child breaks down the word into

initial, terminal, and first vowel sounds. The consonant sounds are whispered or voiced so as to avoid the vowel appendage as much as possible. The vowel is found by breaking down the initial sound plus the vowel.

Then he proceeds to initial blends, the vowel with *r*, and diphthongs. By these four steps he learns sounds related to letters and begins to see and hear familiar parts in words. A child may sometimes need to use a mirror, a distinct aid to listening acuity.

This phonetic skill is first applied to spelling. The low-achiever receives a much desired psychological lift in this effort. He is at grade level in spelling anyway! Sight words have to be told to him, of course, but they can also be learned through the kinesthetic method (to see, to say, to hear, to write or trace). He can thus begin to use all four gateways to learning.

Who is the best judge of a child's need when he must have help in reading? Granted, there are children who do not need this laborious approach. It is difficult, especially when the child does not listen habitually and depends entirely on "See and say," or "You tell, I'll say." There comes a time when telling a child the word becomes ridiculous, particularly when, with a little help, he can build up knowledge of phonetics

\*"Picture Cards," Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, and "Phonics Key Cards," The McCormick-Mathers Publishing Co., Columbus, Ohio.

and learn to attack a word for himself.

Yes, we want fluent readers, and we want to build fluency by reading many easy books, but if a child doesn't know what letters say, he can never be either independent or fluent. The authorities are right, though, when they say that the child reads much more slowly with this approach. But without this drill he frequently is not able to read at all. He does not have the memory for configuration and sight words that many of his peers find simple and automatic.

In order to facilitate vowel skill, my classes learn a vowel game.\*

a e i o u  
y says e or i (at the end of a word)  
a e i o u  
at ed† it on up  
u and w say oo  
a a e e i i o o u u

As a result, when a child asks "What does the letter say?" he knows, and does not stare and stall, repeating the preceding word, before he attacks the hard one.

With the low-achiever, the listening and the blending attack has to be painstakingly taught. He does not apply knowledge without teacher guidance, but he can begin to use his knowledge and finally learns to apply it automatically. By encouraging him to use phonetic skill, and frequently focusing his attention upon it, he eventually begins to apply what he knows. The teacher must see that he does this, for he falls back

into his habitual lackadaisical attitude quickly. This tendency requires that the regular classroom teacher reinforce the work done in remedial reading if the child is to retain the newly acquired skill.

If we must teach every child to read, then all these skills have to be practiced frequently.

1. Find pages quickly.
2. Use config in word attack ("If the word he doesn't know is at the end of the sentence, the child is out of luck").
3. See phrases — pounce on key words and punctuation.
4. Look for configuration clues—tall letters and long ones.
5. See syllables: say the word aloud and by syllables in spelling; drill on phonograms—*ick, igh, as, et, al*; sound out words in a dictionary by syllables.
6. Listen to sounds in words—the initial, the terminal, the first vowel.
7. Learn the vowel "Yell" as listed above, apply it.
8. See two words at once, eye-span, speed with comprehension.
9. Understand the general idea of the article read—scanning.
10. Find the specific sentence to answer a question—skimming.
11. Read many easy books for fun.
12. Read to an audience for its enjoyment.

With the low-achiever these skills have to be taught slowly, one at a time, and used prodigiously, before he can be independent. The more apt pupil learns these skills for himself or understands the first time he

\**Instructor*, February, 1952, p. 39.

†Ed, a boy's name, abbreviated.

is told. Such a child as this can do all the listening cards in four sittings, whereas the low-achiever is lucky if he is able to do them in four weeks.

The majority of the less apt pupils willingly do the listening, even ask for it often. In order to avoid any possible discouragement, spelling by the kinesthetic method, and reading from an instructional text are practiced at intervals. The instructional level is found by the use of an Informal Reading Inventory.

Blending is the next step in efficiency and is also a painstaking procedure with the low-achiever, but he learns to read, especially if he keeps his voice going as he sounds-out, instead of breaking off after each letter is sounded.

Teaching these skills, particularly the listening, is not easy, not glamorous, and not measurable by any known test. The only gratification for the teacher is the satisfaction and efficiency she observes in the child as he adequately attacks words.

My plea is, that we stop being smug about all the other reading skills. They are easier to teach and they do work for some, but the "See and say," or "You tell, I'll say," is not the only method. Sometimes a little hard work at listening is just the solution and pays off in the child's pride in his own independence.

The child doesn't mind this work, even enjoys doing it in most cases. Why, then, should administrators or teachers balk at it?

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*(Continued from Page 80)*

12. Research projects as a means of in-service training received next to least frequent mention in this study on the part of both administrators and teachers. This fact points to the possible need for the carrying on of more experimentation and research with methods designed to improve the teaching of reading. This would provide experience in testing the value of research methods as a medium of in-service training in this area.

13. College teachers of education

and administrators in the public schools can profit from a consideration of the facts brought out in this study. This is true because individuals expressing the points of view set forth in this report would be given consideration in education classes and in conferences with school administrators. Surely, these leaders, fortified with this knowledge, should assume the responsibility of progressing with their listeners to a more adequate solution of their common problems.

## A Breakthrough in Reading

by EVELYN N. WOOD  
● DYNAMICS READING INSTITUTE  
WASHINGTON, D. C.

**T**O DESTROY the Western tradition of independent thought, it is not necessary to burn the books. All we need to do is to leave them unread for a generation or two."

—Robert M. Hutchins

If you could read a book of average size in an hour or less would you read more books? Responses from a wishful sigh to angry resentment are evoked by this question. Why can't you read a book in that time? Why must people be content to read at the old horse and buggy rates of two hundred to four hundred words a minute?

Few important things have resisted twentieth-century progress. Industry has packed a former month's production into a single day. High speed vehicles have caused time to shrink length-wise until a former three-month ocean trip becomes a daily round-trip routine. Undreamed strides have been made in audio and visual communications, adding height and perspective to our social and cultural advance. Yet education and thought communication remain shackled to the printed page. And the tragic fact remains that we still take as long to read those pages as our grandparents did.

The professional, the educator, the specialist are launched into the field of service by a vocational, a bachelor's, a master's or a doctor's degree.

The more education each receives, the more he becomes dependent on books. After he receives his final diploma he must continue to read, or the very tools of his profession obsolesce, causing the relative effectiveness of his service to decline. A relentless flood of books, magazines, and papers pours forth, only to be placed in neat stacks beside his desk. Instead of opening new horizons in his field and bringing new ideas, these must be relegated to his when-I-get-time-to-read-it shelf to gather dust.

Two hundred to four hundred words a minute has been the accepted reading rate for decades. A reading specialist can devise ways of making the eyes move over the words at faster speeds. Dedicated students can double their speeds on fairly simple material, but still the reading bottleneck remains very real. Thousands of the nation's most capable students choose less rewarding vocations rather than suffer the fatiguing barriers created by necessary reading. Knowledge is just books away. A breakthrough in reading could change the course of many lives. Such a breakthrough is being achieved. A new kind of research is required to make it possible.

Fast reading is not unheard of. History records interesting snatches about famous people who were able to read at exceptionally fast rates.



Perhaps the best known was Theodore Roosevelt. In addition to his time-consuming obligations as president of the United States, he was able to read three books a day. Boswell refers to Samuel Johnson's rapid reading, John Stuart Mill bemoaned the fact that it took him longer to turn the pages than to read them. Balzac, Jonathan Swift, and Caesar are also referred to by historians as very rapid readers. I was fifty to one-hundred years too late to ask even the last one how he did it.

I watched Dr. C. Lowell Lees, head of the Speech Department at the University of Utah, read a typed term paper as fast as he could turn the eighty pages. He could tell what was in it and what was not. He answered questions on the content as they were answered on the paper. He was one of the best informed and widely read professors I met in college. His classes are an inspiration to all who hear him. He was the first proof to me that people who read very, very fast can also have exceptionally good comprehension and retention. I began to wonder if there were others alive today who could read as he did. My students and I began a search for such people.

In Salt Lake City I found other fast readers. One was a boy who was a shepherd during the summer. One was a doctor who was able to read his assignments during his medical study eighteen hundred to twenty-five hundred words per minute. This man was also well informed on every subject that came up for discussion. In the course of two years

I personally timed and checked the speed and comprehension of over fifty people who could read from fifteen hundred to six thousand words per minute. I watched each one read, jotted down the characteristics of his reading, his speed, and my evaluation of his comprehension on a file card.

Of significance to me was the variation in occupation as well as in intellectual attainment of these fast readers. None of them had received special training in reading. All of them enjoyed reading and had read extensively. None of them were special products of any one school. All of them had read fast from youth. All of them read difficult material at fast speeds, and all of them were avid readers. None of them were aware of their speed, and none of them had techniques to offer. The most common statement was, "I was just bored at slow reading and there was so much to be read, so I just decided to read fast."

Of course one of my greatest desires was to be able to learn how to do this myself. I began comparing the methods of the fast readers and those of the slow ones. I had over six hundred similar cards taken on slow readers. After careful analysis, I found the fast readers had nine points in common. The slow readers did not show any of these nine points. Then began a period of five years of hard work. At that time I was teaching in a high school. The Superintendent, Reed H. Beckstead, gave me unlimited support, interest, and equipment and most of all, encour-



agement. Principals O. D. Ballard and Ralph Keeper guarded and cultivated the early efforts. The Superintendent also made available the testing services of the school district psychologist to test every step of the way. Later, for three years, the University of Utah supplied endless streams of students who stood in lines many hours to register for the course.

In Washington, D. C., during this last year with the assistance and help of some of the finest educators in the communities of this vicinity, we have been trying to rub off some of the rough corners and refine and perfect the teaching methods so that many more young people and adults can read the precious information in great books. Groups of executives,

such as the president of a large corporation and his board of directors, groups of selected chemists, physicists, sales executives and their wives from another large company, and selected classes of high school students have registered in the classes. Summer sessions have been filled in Washington with young people who are anxious to read—many students reading from thirty to a hundred books of their own choice during the twelve weeks.

And what of the results as shown on the standardized tests? — Very high, so high that more adequate kinds of testing must be provided. Otherwise too many students who read very fast and accurately push against the ceilings of the tests.

*(Continued from Page 107)*

Decorating the stage and making the props are true artistic ventures. The creation of effective and appropriate backdrops calls for skill and imagination. All of these activities are art with a purpose, with the added incentive of an immediate showing for the artist's work.

A multiplicity of talents is called for in creating the play, writing the scripts and programs, making the puppets, costumes, scenery and props, directing the players and handling the physical properties and in operating and speaking for the puppets. A number of children must contribute their services, having in mind the common goal toward which they are working. This is meaningful grouping. It is the kind of grouping in consonance with a truly individualized reading program.

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## PRESIDENT'S REPORT

BY

MARY C. AUSTIN

President, International Reading Association

THE BEGINNING of a new decade often provides the incentive for educators to review past accomplishments and to scan the years ahead. Because significant changes occurred in the 1950's, this year in particular can be expected to mark the advent of a strikingly new era in education.

International events, rapid travel, and almost instantaneous communication have made the world "smaller" each year, thus increasing the need for well informed citizens. President Eisenhower recognized this fact when he issued the call for the recent White House Conference on Children and Youth by stating: "The rapidly changing times in which we live . . . make it incumbent upon us to . . . prepare today's children well for life in tomorrow's world."

We are told that there will be as many *children* in America in 1965 as there were people of *all* ages in 1900. Both quantity and quality of instruction are essential components of the kind of curriculum that will enable these millions of young people to deal intelligently with the problems of the times.

The International Reading Association was formed specifically to assist in the great movement to provide more effective reading instruction at all educational levels. Through local, regional, and international conferences, IRA members

focus their attention on current issues in the teaching of reading. It is only when individuals and groups work together for improvement of reading that greater numbers will benefit—administrators, teachers, children, parents, and others.

During the next decade the Association will assume a prominent role in promoting research in reading, in studying the factors that influence progress in reading, and in publishing the results of significant investigations and practices. The Studies and Research Committee with Dr. Theodore Clymer as chairman is presently exploring various ways of achieving this goal.

At its fall meeting in St. Louis the Board took a number of forward-looking steps. One of these centered around the recommendations made by the Committee on Committees which was appointed last spring by Dr. Artley. Dr. Morton Botel and his group were asked (1) to study the present structure of our organization, and (2) to propose changes in committee organization which will eliminate duplication and overlap of committee functions.

The January issue of the *Reading Teacher* will bring a report of recent Board action, including plans for the Annual Conference in St. Louis on May 4-6, 1961. May your Thanksgiving and Christmas holidays be especially pleasant!

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# What RESEARCH Says to the Reading Teacher

BY

**AGATHA TOWNSEND**

*Consultant, Educational Records Bureau*

## **Vocabulary Building in School and College**

The importance of developing and maintaining a large recognition vocabulary in reading has been recognized for many years. Reading is far *more* than word recognition, and vocabulary knowledge is far more complex than simple knowledge of a single familiar meaning for a word, but skills in this area are nevertheless a minimum requirement which probably grows more and more important as the pupil progresses in age and grade.

The acquisition of multiple meanings for terms, the cultivation of "depth of meaning" as it is sometimes called, the ability to recognize words in their technical uses as well as their more common ones, the growing awareness of constellations of words important for a school subject, or the development of systematic classifications of words through their roots are all aspects of vocabulary knowledge which have received attention in research.

Dale (3) reflects the complexity of the area in one of his reviews of the status of vocabulary research, which covers such diverse fields as how to study general and technical vocabularies, how to assess the importance

of vocabulary control for reading materials, and how to refine our estimates of both frequency of word use and familiarity of pupils with words.

Studies published in the last decade reflect the tendency to stress vocabulary knowledge in the higher grades. Both high school and college classes have cooperated to add to information in this area.

Krantz (5) attests to the general need to continue vocabulary building. In his study of the relationship of elementary school reading skills to success in the content fields in high school, he reports that statistical analysis reveals that vocabulary (along with total study skills and reading comprehension) is among the most efficient predictors of success in the secondary school years.

What is the response of the high school to such a finding? In general, Patterson (9) found, to agree and to accept the responsibility for some of the specialized tasks of improving word knowledge. He reports that high school teachers frequently emphasize instruction in vocabulary as they seek to supplement the formal reading program with the reading skills needed for subject matter courses.

Vocabulary gains in high school can be substantial, and they can be maintained. Miles (7) as long ago as 1945 sought to establish this finding by a controlled experiment. In her study an experimental group of tenth graders not only gained significantly in test score after a semester of intensive work but they maintained a considerable advantage over the control group even two and one-half years later.

As reading programs are extended in scope, there is a vital need to continue with basic research at the new levels. Does the importance of vocabulary diminish with the college years? It should not be assumed that because a skill is necessary and strategic in high school its significance is the same in college.

A prototype of the kind of studies needed to demonstrate the need for further attention to vocabulary is the research by Barrett (1) which employed statistical techniques in careful analysis of predictors of success in history study. She concluded that a vocabulary score would contribute materially to a formula for predicting college history grades.

It has been demonstrated, also, that certain courses can effectively produce growth in the vocabulary knowledge of college students. Westfall (12) in a large-scale study worked with over three hundred students for several semesters. His research suggests that student need and interest are of great importance, and his attempt to increase vocabulary utilized words needed for college courses and for other areas pertinent

to student demands. His methods produced large measured gains. Braddock and Kraus (2) worked with retarded college readers. They report the efforts made in a freshman communications course to increase the vocabularies of students through use of materials derived from their other college courses.

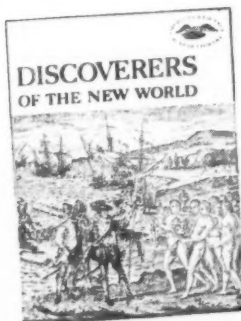
Perhaps it will be noted that the studies reviewed here are not very numerous nor, perchance, so extensive in scope as the reading specialist would desire. Actually, it is one of the purposes of this review to point out that, in spite of all the publication we have seen in the past, we need constant research efforts today—to develop effective methods for teaching the high school and college reader, to explore the results of use of the new workbooks and manuals which have been published for the higher grades, to test and retest our assumptions about the reading needs and potential progress of these groups.

Other authors have also pointed out the danger that we may reach too easy conclusions about various aspects of reading and how to teach it. In fact, ours is a complex field, full of subtle relationships. New insights emerge even when investigations may look as if they covered ground which is very familiar. Reference will be made here to only two studies which illustrate this possibility—both bring into question assumptions which are rarely denied. McCracken (6), for example, has experimented with controlling the vocabulary of selections and found that



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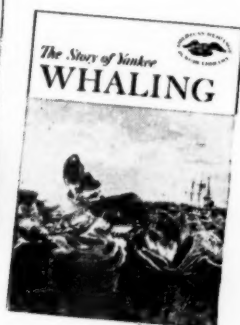
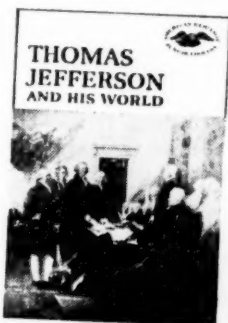
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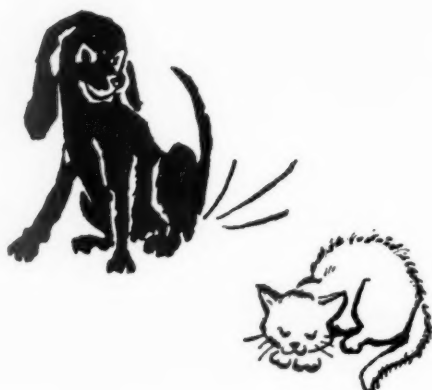
readability is not increased as much as one might expect by this technique. Otterman (8) dealt with a favored teaching method, and found unexpectedly negative results in attempting to increase word knowledge through the study of word affixes and roots. We should obviously not conclude immediately that word difficulty is not important in readability, or that we should not teach word parts. But we should continue to study these, along with many other problems.

This paper should not finish on a negative note, to do so might bring about a feeling that we know little about the importance of vocabulary study and less about how to conduct it. Rather, let us turn to three final references which suggest the wealth of the resources at the teacher's command. Seegers (10) some years ago published a very helpful list of pertinent studies covering such areas as the teaching of technical meanings, the use of context, and many other aspects of the field. Dale and Reichert (4) have brought up to 1957 their very extensive listing and classification, which now includes more than two thousand articles and books on vocabulary. This list is not confined to formal research, but collects many entries on methods and procedures as well. Traxler and Jungeblut (11) provide the most recent bibliography which includes research on vocabulary as well as many other fields of reading. As classroom teachers and reading specialists evaluate the reports on which such bibliographies are based, new

techniques and new programs will emerge.

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## What Other Magazines Say About READING

BY

**MURIEL POTTER LANGMAN**

*Eastern Michigan University and Hawthorn Center, Northville, Michigan*

SISTER JOSEPHINA, C.F.S. "Survey of the Research Related to the Reading Ability of the Gifted." *Journal of Educational Research*, February, 1960.

In this relatively brief review of a new field the writer points out the scarcity of statistical studies and the necessity for additional research. The concept of mental age and its relationship to expected reading achievement appears over and over again in the reviews in this article. The value of the mental age concept as a criterion requires new scrutiny in view of the many different ways it is obtained. (The new light thrown upon the nature and variability of intellectual functions by the introduction of separate mental age and IQ scores for verbal and performance components in the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children makes it likely that many studies of the 40's ought to be redesigned and repeated.—MPL)

BLOOMER, RICHARD H. "An Investigation of an Experimental First Grade Phonics Program." *Journal of Educational Research*, January, 1960.

Using a new rationale for the old and presently notorious method of teaching reading through the selection of material for its phonics components instead of for its appeal to children and by selection of words on the basis of

frequency counts, the experimenter designed a program in which, preceded by a basal reader reading readiness program, children were given sixteen weeks of experience with the experimental program, then eight weeks in a basal series program, then final testing. "The children were not taught the phonics in the basal reader program, but used the phonics they had learned with the experimental method." The details of this phonics method are not given in detail, but the experimenter summarizes it as "designed in such a way as to restrict the words which the children learned to those which could be worked out phonetically."

In a control group the regular basal reading program was followed for the entire year, fifty or sixty sight words first being learned by methods recommended by the basal series manual, then work in intrinsic phonics being offered as prescribed by the manual. Teachers of both experimental and control groups spent approximately sixty minutes a day in teaching reading. The teacher of the experimental group was teaching for the first time, while the teacher of the control group had taught for four years. The matched groups were made up of twenty-nine children each. The article should be read in order to have clearly in mind



the criteria for the selection of words taught by the experimental method. The experimenter presents test results to support his statement that the experimental method was more effective in teaching beginning reading than the control method. Among his findings were these: The differences were significantly in favor of the experimental group in the Word Recognition and Sentence Reading subtests of the Gates Primary Tests. The mean differences for Paragraph Reading and the average scores were not significant. The dispersion of reading abilities for the experimental group was significantly smaller than for the control group, with far fewer children at the lower end. Thus skills of the children in the experimental classes tended to be more uniform. The experimenter examines his statistical findings and attempts to explain some of these results. What seems most significant to me is that far fewer children in the experimental group had scores which fell in the lowest third of the distribution of scores, which ranged from beginning first through top third on the final test. Teaching by a phonics method which presents word parts (letter sounds) and teaches their integration by blending into word wholes has been found effective by a number of investigators working with slower learners in reading—Kirk, for example. I have observed it to be far more effective than any sight method in teaching older nonreaders, as these severely handicapped readers—or nonreaders—lack adequate visual discrimination and visual memory, which are essential in learning a sight vocabulary. Hence this study sup-

ports the supposition that children who might ordinarily have difficulty in beginning reading (and who might then become the older poor readers referred to above) would profit from having the kind of deductive, synthesizing experience with beginning phonics at once, in first grade, which ordinarily is not employed except as a remedial method after the reading handicap has developed. Thus we have another argument for eclecticism in teaching reading. Since the numbers used in this experiment were small, the hypothesis deserves further testing.

AARON, I. E. "What Teachers and Prospective Teachers Know about Phonics Generalizations." *Journal of Educational Research*, May, 1960.

This study was especially interesting to me because of my experience in teaching reading methods to undergraduate students, who insistently declared that they had learned no "phonics" as they learned to read, and therefore were unacquainted with the content of the phonics program for beginning readers. I tended to attribute this "ignorance" to the use of intrinsic phonics as a method of presentation, by which children absorbed concepts of letter-sound relationship as they were needed instead of in a systematic instruction period separated from context reading.

The subjects of this experiment were 293 persons enrolled at different times in an introductory course in teaching reading at the University of Georgia. Of these, 104 were teachers with one or more years of experience, 189 had no teaching experience. A six-item multiple choice test, requiring the



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application of phonics principles to nonsense words was developed and used. The items required application of rules for pronunciation of the six vowels, and for the pronunciation of *c* and *g*. The best possible score was 60, the group mean was 34.22, the standard deviation 8.42, and the range from 13 to 59.

The percentage of correctness for items ranged from a low of 32 on the soft and hard *g* principle to 83 on the vowel *a* followed by *l*. A statistical analysis of the success of the subjects, who were divided into four groups on the basis of length of teaching experience, showed that experienced teachers tended to know more about the principles of phonics than inexperienced ones. The experimenter suggests that teachers with experience had learned something about these principles in the course of teaching them to children. Primary teachers did not excel those teaching at higher grade levels.

Certain phonics generalizations were better known than others, which suggests that perhaps courses in the teaching of reading should teach not only *how to teach* phonics generalization, but the generalizations themselves also.

MORGAN, ELMER F., JR., and STUCKER, GERALD R. "The Joplin Plan of Reading vs. a Traditional Method." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, April, 1960.

The experimenters attempted an evaluation, as described in their title, in a consolidated school system in southeastern Michigan. Their groups were small. The study was carried on by using 90 matched pairs of fifth- and sixth-grade subjects, groups being

formed at the end of the fourth and fifth grades for the following year. The results were not statistically significant, which the experimenters attribute to problems in the sample. "Because of these limitations, trends significant at less than the .10 level will be taken as trends indicating the worthwhileness of further experimentation."

A question as to the intrinsic value of this program arises when one examines another quotation in the discussion of the results. The experimenters believe that improvement took place because the subjects were placed in non-threatening reading situations with less overt competition from better readers, and material was provided which each child could read successfully. "This rarely happens," they continue, "in heterogeneous competitive groups at Grades 4, 5 and 6 where grouping within the class is practically nonexistent."

A situation in which there is no attempt to meet the needs of individual children through varying methods and through grouping cannot help but be inferior to *any* plan in which an attempt is made to meet these needs. Hence I should expect that not the Joplin plan alone, but any plan which had some regard for individual differences, might have produced improvement in reading achievement, particularly of poorer readers.

ROBINSON, HELEN M. "Individualized Reading." In Notes and Comment, *Elementary School Journal*, May, 1960.

Dr. Robinson describes and evaluates comments and research on this topic. She considers such questions as the validity of the concept of reading

as closely related to physical development, the extent to which "individualized reading" is a new term for teaching practices already in use and recommended, relationships between this "new method" and any sound basal reading program, and the findings of research where they are applicable.

SAWYER, RICHARD P. "Viva Julian." *Elementary School Journal*, May, 1960.

A case study of a poor reader in sixth grade, with a description of how some preconceived notions of how to help with reading had to be altered.

WEPMAN, JOSEPH M. "Auditory Discrimination, Speech and Reading." *Elementary School Journal*, March, 1960.

Dr. Wepman describes the rationale of a new test of auditory discrimination and suggests uses for it as a diagnostic instrument in early reading problems. He stresses the relationship between auditory discrimination abilities and readiness for phonics instruction and the importance of providing special training early for children who lag behind in the development of this discrimination.

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## Interesting BOOKS for the Reading Teacher

BY

**HARRY T. HAHN**

*Oakland County Schools, Michigan*

### What Can You Do with a Book?

Some children's books live on long after they are closed not only because they tell a memorable story or transmit useful information, but because they provide a unique quality which might best be described as an "idea starter." In an idea starter book, it is apparent that the author has discovered a very useful and sometimes unique plan or imaginative way for communicating his or her thoughts. Once this plan is discerned by the readers, the pregnant possibilities for the further development of the idea can lead to a roomful of talk or a headful of thoughts and the dictation or writing of creative stories.

*A Tree Is Nice* by Janice May Udry (Harper, 1956, \$3.25), is an excellent example of an idea starter. With child-like words and beautiful pictures the author shows young people how to say what they really feel by giving meaning to general and vague expressions. "What do you really mean when you say a tree is nice?" Children will want to draw their own pictures and dictate or write their own answers to this question. Once the idea is started, the result could well be a new book written by the entire class. But it doesn't stop with a mere discussion of a tree. The idea deserves further exploration and development. Children will begin to

see the possibilities in writing about: Mother Is Wonderful, Ice Skating Is Fun, Fall Is the Best Time of the Year, and many other topics which suggest very personal responses.

*The Important Book* by Margaret Wise Brown (Harper, 1949, \$1.75), has been an outstanding idea starter ever since it was published. It has led many children to stop and think about what is important about a bird, a home, a school, an airplane, Michigan, and Buffalo Bill. When all the important things about an object, person or experience are considered, then the question is raised "What is the most important thing?" The major idea is soon identified and the subordinate thoughts are apparent. In a short time children are observing their environment closely and writing with detail and precision. Janice Dulong, a pupil in Mrs. Desdamong Hulett's second-grade class in L'Anse Creuse, Michigan, provided this example:

The important thing about a Mother  
is that she loves you.  
She takes care of you.  
She cleans your clothes for school.  
She cooks for you.  
But the important thing about a  
Mother is that she loves you.

Dr. Seuss' imaginative stories have always been a boon to creative writing, for they show children how to think "on beyond zebra." Countless boys and



*She knows  
a book can be  
a treasured  
friend—*

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doors to the adventurous world  
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girls have drawn weird animals or fish, or modeled them in papier mâché, before writing or dictating stories of the kinds of animals they would like to see in the zoo, or fish they hoped to catch in a pond. His latest contribution is an easy-to-read book, *One Fish, Two Fish, Red Fish, Blue Fish* (Random House, 1960, \$1.95). It is certain to interest children in the primary grades. The stories they will write as a result of reading this book will be far more effective in teaching rhyming elements in words than any workbook.

*I Like Caterpillars* and *I Like Butterflies* by Gladys Conklin (Holiday House, 1960, \$2.95 each). These beautifully and authentically illustrated non-technical books are most certain to provide curious young observers, who are not yet ready for scientific texts, with a plan for recording what they see. The books stress the beauty of butterflies and caterpillars and guide children to look for the beauty in nature. Once the idea of observing nature is started, see how far it will go with the young scientists in your class.

Well written children's books can provide excellent models for children to emulate in expressing their own ideas. Once they have shared with the authors stimulating approaches to thinking and using words, boys and girls are well on their way to discovering a method of writing which is entirely their own.

### Wise Counsel

STRANG, RUTH, *Helping your Gifted Child*. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1960. Pp. 270. \$4.50.

Dr. Ruth Strang has done it again!

For many years we have been able to depend upon this prolific and versatile writer to make significant contributions on timely topics to give us a better understanding of children and how to educate them. *Helping your Gifted Child* is certainly no exception. Once more Dr. Strang has demonstrated her own talents for gleaning the best from the research available, authoritatively analyzing the data, and organizing a lucid, readable book, which is certain to be of interest to anyone at all concerned with this topic.

This nontechnical text discusses the problems of the gifted by age group—preschool, school, and adolescence—and treats effectively the wide variations in giftedness in the arts, music, social, and physical skills as well as purely academic subjects. The special problems of the gifted in developing well rounded personalities require careful attention. Illuminating insights regarding many promising approaches are provided. The text does not offer patented prescriptions for showing how to help gifted children make full use of their potential. However, it does give some basic principles for making sound judgements.

The appendices contain an excellent bibliography of useful resources and a list of books which gifted children might enjoy reading.

It is indeed difficult to write about talented youth because they vary so greatly. It is so easy to come up with broad, meaningless generalizations. Dr. Strang avoids this pitfall by depending upon many personal anecdotes, some of them humorous, all of them illustrative of the points she wants to make.

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### College and Adult Reading Research

PRICE, JACOB M., Ed. *Reading for Life*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1959. Pp. 304. \$6.00.

This work, perhaps the most exciting book on reading to be published since the Gray-Rogers study on reading maturity, is an outgrowth of the conference on The Undergraduate and Lifetime Reading Interest sponsored by the University of Michigan at the dedication of the new undergraduate library in February, 1958. The conference brought together thirty eminent persons, representing various college disciplines, library work, book publishing and selling, and business.

It is impossible in a short review to sample the unique quality of this work, but any person involved with college students and their reading will find it stimulating, informative, and vastly enjoyable. It provides an excellent review by Lester Asheim of research on college and adult reading, the role of numerous non-curricular influences on the reading situation, such as the library and the campus book store. Suggestions within various papers for developing the lifetime reading habit are supplemented by the discussion which took place among the conferees. The final chapter is a synthesis by Dr. Asheim of the more provocative ideas which emerged from the conference.

Perhaps the most trenchant suggestions are those by Dr. Reuben Brower

of Harvard in his discussion of reading in the humanities. Dr. Brower proposes a return to the "slow reading" of classical education, the minute analysis of any particular selection to intensify the reader's appreciation of all the subtler aspects of expression. He applies his ideas to the reading of poetry, elaborating extensively in a convincing demonstration of the values of exact reading. Brower contends that "The most important requirement for teaching an undergraduate course—beyond belief in what one is doing—is to keep this question in mind: What is happening to the student? Other questions soon follow: What do I want him to do and how can I get him to do it? Planning and teaching from this point of view makes the difference between a course that engages the student and one that merely displays the teacher" (p. 81).

The individual papers which make up the book are scholarly but highly practical, involving both research and deeply imaginative suggestions from the various writers. — BROTHER LEONARD COURTNEY, F.S.C., *St. Mary's College*

### Read Faster and Better

HERR, SELMA E. *Effective Reading for Adults*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company. Pp. 365. \$5.75.

Have you been thinking about the possibility of improving your own reading skills? If you have, you might find this new text enjoyable and worthwhile. It is a voluminous, spiral bound book obviously designed for work with groups, but it could be used on an individual basis. The materials, of course, are not intended for remedial reading.

Dr. Herr has included all the stand-



ard ingredients found in adult reading improvement programs — self-evaluation devices, timed reading exercises, comprehension checks, vocabulary activities, and skimming and critical reading sections. However, she treats each of these topics more thoroughly than most texts and carefully integrates the various skills into her total program. It is apparent from her choice of reading selections and the organization of her material that she has had much experience with adult groups. This is a very useful book.

### A Self Help Reader

O'DONNELL, MABEL, and COOPER, J. LOUIS. *From Codes to Captains*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson, 1960. Pp. 383. \$2.80.

"Help yourself become a better reader" is the advice given to young

people at the beginning of this unique basal textbook. It is good advice, too, if the young reader follows the carefully planned and cleverly organized directions. The idea of explaining why specific reading and study habits are important, and then providing practice on each step introduced is an excellent one. It should be a valuable book for pupils in the intermediate grades. The publishers suggest that it be used in fourth grade.

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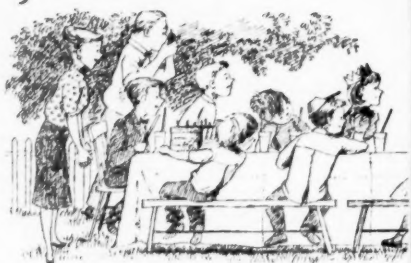
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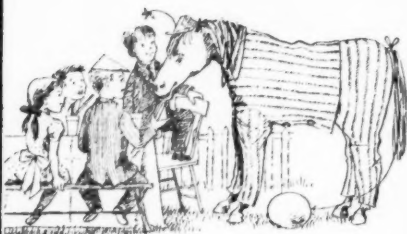


"Do you think Casey would like something to eat?" Mrs. Brant asked. "What should we give him?"

Casey whispered to Mike again. "I think," Mike said uncomfortably, "he would like a peanut butter sandwich, two carrot sticks, and a piece of cake."

When it was time to go, everyone said good-bye to Casey, and two of the girls kissed him on the neck.

50



After they got back to the garage, Mike said, "Casey, I wish you wouldn't do that again."

"Don't be silly," Casey said. "They thought I was adorable."

"I don't like them thinking I made up all those silly things, like the hat and the balloon."

"Oh, don't be ridiculous. They loved it."

"And another thing," Mike said. "You shouldn't have eaten all that stuff. Why can't you eat like a horse?"

51

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"Let's see it again," Casey said. "My, it certainly is a fine picture, especially of me. Read what it says, Gloria."

"It says, 'Mr. and Mrs. George Brant of 43 Spruce Lane'..."

"No, no. Not that part. Read what it says about me."

"I was getting to that. Now, where was I? Oh! ... gave a birthday party for their son Billy on Saturday!"

"Skip that part," Casey said. "All I want to hear is the part about me."

"I'll get to it. Give me a chance," Gloria said.

Casey turned to Mike. "Do you like girls?" Then Mike's mother called him, and he was glad he didn't have to answer that question again. There was a telephone call, his mother said.

A man on the telephone said, "Is this Mike Bradford?"

Mike said that he was, and the man explained that he was the high school dramatics teacher,

52



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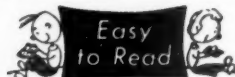
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### Independent Reading

The ability to read means independence to children, and even beginners covet independence. Philadelphia librarians experimented four years to prepare a list of books that first and second graders can read on their own. "Find Me a Book I Can Read" may be ordered from Office of Work with Children, Free Public Library of Philadelphia, Logan Square, Philadelphia 3, Pennsylvania. Single copies free if request is accompanied by a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

Frieda M. Heller has compiled and annotated another listing of books that children can read by themselves. Rather than classifying books by grade-level of difficulty, she has listed books under the headings: "I'm Just Beginning to Read by Myself," "I'm Reading a Little Better," etc. Each entry includes author, title, publisher, copyright date, price, and annotation. "*I Can Read It Myself!*": *Some Books for Independent Reading in the Primary Grades*. Publications Office, The Ohio State University, 242 W. 18th Ave., Columbus 10, Ohio. \$1.00.

### Incentives to Learn

Here's another indication that schools, from kindergarten up, must have comprehensive libraries. Parents of forty student winners of the

1960 Science Talent Search were asked what contributed to their children's excellence in science. The Science Talent Search is conducted by Science Clubs of America for the Westinghouse Science Scholarships and Awards.

Reading was listed, along with parental and teacher influence and freedom to experiment. Types of reading included almanacs, children's series and general books on science, textbooks and semi-technical books on specific fields of science, encyclopedias (until ten years of age) and magazines such as *Scientific American*, *Science News Letter*, and *Natural History*. Students need opportunities to browse.

A previous survey of winners of the annual Talent Search indicated that for most of the students interest developed early, before they reached the high school years.

### Science Literature

This column does appear to emphasize books in science, but that is because both schools and publishers seem to feel they have some catching-up to do. Viking is publishing a new series of paper bound reprints of science titles called Explorer Books. The first titles include such fascinating ones as *The Chemical History of a Candle* by Michael Faraday (\$0.95), *Caves of Adven-*

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ture by Haroun Tazieff (\$1.45), *Adventuring with Beebe* by William Beebe (\$1.25), and *The Triumph of the Tree* by John Stewart Collis (\$1.25). There are others; these are the ones I want to start with.

Scholastic Magazines is now publishing two editions of the magazine *Science World*. The junior edition is planned for students in junior high school, for use in general science courses. The senior edition is for high school students and stresses major areas, such as biology, chemistry, or physics.

### Science Bibliographies

"A Bibliography of Reference Books for Elementary Science," 1960 edition. National Science Teachers Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. \$0.50.

"Growing Up with Science Books," 1960 edition, lists about two hundred informational science books, from picture books for the young child to books for teenagers. R. R. Bowker Company, 62 West 45th Street, New York 36, N. Y. \$3.35 for 100 copies.

"Selected Science Books for Secondary Schools; A Bibliography," (First Supplement), by R. Vincent Cash *et al.* The bibliography lists 165 new titles, with annotations. CSTA Bibliography Committee, Central Connecticut State College, New Britain, Connecticut. \$0.35.

Lloyd C. Bingham, Librarian of Eisenhower High School, Decatur, Illinois, presents a "Science Fair Bibliography" in *Junior Libraries* for April, 1960. The books are those

that exhibitors at Decatur's Science Fair said they had used in working out their projects. The exhibitors polled were in junior and senior high schools. Mr. Bingham suggests such a listing will be helpful for the librarian to consult in preparing resource materials for students working on future projects.

Albert Monheit, "Space Age Books for the Junior High Age," *Junior Libraries*, 6 (January 1960), 10-11. The list includes fifty books on astronomy, atomic energy, space exploration, survival in space, satellites and space vehicles, and lives of pioneers in space science. Mr. Monheit is Director of Work with Children and Young People, Great Neck, New York Library. He warns that the list is neither complete nor comprehensive.

### Book Awards

Canadian Library Association awards: For the book of the year for children, to Marius Barbeau and Michael Hornyansky for *The Golden Phoenix*. This is a collection of French-Canadian fairy tales collected directly from local story-tellers by Dr. Barbeau. The award for the children's book published in French went to Mme. Paule Davelny, for *L'été enchanté*.

The British Library Association: The Carnegie Medal for the outstanding book for children in 1959 to Rosemary Sutcliff for *The Lantern Bearers*. The Kate Greenaway Medal for illustration was awarded to William Stobbs for two books, *Kashtanka* and *A Bundle of Ballads*.



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